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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers for school personnel and families who deal with gifted and talented children addresses teaching and counseling strategies as well as the role of the family in educating these children. "Instructional Strategies for the Gifted and Talented," by Donna Rae Clasen, emphasizes questioning as an instructional strategy. "Using Children's Books for Creative and Cognitive Development," by Robin Deutsch, discusses bibliotherapy. "Vocational Expression of Human Talent," by Philip A. Perrone and Dennis H. Van Den Heuvel, analyzes the characteristics of talented persons and their career development processes. Other titles are: "Creativity: A Multifaceted Phenomena," by Linda S. Lingemann and David H. Stong; "Understanding and Educating the Right Hemisphere," by James L. Lee and Charles J. Pulvino; "Sensitizing Ourselves to the Unique Concerns of the Culturally Different Gifted Child," by Karol L. Jensen and Angela E. Hope; "Parents--The Prime Resource: Support Groups of the Gifted and Talented," by John H. Pribyl and Sally A. Schlack; "Networking and Mentoring: Resources for the Gifted and Talented," by Dan R. Seabold; "Gifted and Talented: Why They Think, Feel and Act So Excitingly Different," by Dennis H. Van Den Heuvel and Donald M. Callahan; "Meeting the Educational Needs of the Athletically Gifted Student," by Mary Weaver-Grefe and Linda R. Sanders; "Group Counseling: Creating a Gifted and Talented Peer Community," by Marilyn D. Ritholz; "A Model of Family Functioning: Families with Gifted and Talented Children," by John H. Pribyl; and "Sex Roles as They Affect Talented Students' Career Development," by Dorothy J. Tysse. A biographical sketch of each author is included. (AG)

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PARENTING, TEACHING, COUNSELING, GIFTED AND TALENTED

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GIFTS Anniversary Symposium

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Guidance Institute for Talented Students

University of Wisconsin-Madison

GIFTS **Guidance Institute for Talented Students**
University of Wisconsin—Madison

The University of Wisconsin-Madison Guidance Institute For Talented Students (GIFTS) offers school personnel and other groups unique opportunities to explore and participate in educational and counseling programs serving the needs of gifted and talented children.

Founded in 1957, GIFTS has devoted over 25 years of systematic research and service to child development and K-12 school programming for talented youngsters. Institute staff are specialists in the intellectual and social development of talented children; local school district needs assessment; comprehensive in-service for teachers, counselors, curriculum coordinators, and parents; identification and growth assessment of talent; and consultation for "gifted/talented" program planning, implementation, and evaluation.

GIFTS has been founded on a philosophy that human talent, in whatever form it emerges, should be fostered through local school/community programs. The GIFTS model has successfully integrated quality research with innovative, as well as practical educational and career guidance techniques. Over 200 local school districts in Wisconsin and nation-wide have afforded themselves of GIFTS programs and services.

GIFTS Guidance Institute for Talented Students
University of Wisconsin—Madison

25th Anniversary

Symposium Monographs

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QUESTIONS REGARDING THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

Philip A. Perrone, Ph.D.

Professor and Director

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to begin by acknowledging Professor John W. M. Rothney for establishing the Guidance Laboratory for Superior Students in 1957 and conducting the basic counseling and human development research which serves as the foundation for much of what will be discussed during this symposium. In turn, Professors Marshall Sanborn and Charles Pulvino continued the work of Professor Rothney, adding their individual quests for understanding. These three men and over one hundred former research assistants left me a rich legacy six years ago.

Having read or discussed the content of all the presentations, I would like to commend the presentors for going beyond what has been accepted as the essence of gifted and talented education by initiating their own line of inquiry, call it research, and testing both the concepts and their application. The presentors have gone beyond the norm and answered the proverbial "so what?" question while adding the next level of questions.

RECOGNITION

It pleases me personally and professionally to have Tom Diener, Department of Public Instruction, Consultant in Gifted Education and Bill Erpenback and Jerry Henning, Guidance Consultants with DPI in attendance. Members of the Counseling and Guidance faculty are here both as presentors and participants and add greatly to the relevance of the Symposium.

All of us appreciate Dr. Bert Grover, State Superintendent of Public Instruction and Dean of Education, John Palmer, for taking the time to join us.

Marilyn Ritholz, Jan Lunda, Dutch Van Den Heuvel, and members of the GIFTS staff, thank you for creating the idea of this Symposium and seeing it through to its realization.

INTRODUCTION

I believe each of us will benefit most from this Symposium if we enter with questions. I want to share a few questions I have regarding each topic in order to stimulate your thinking. The three questions I have raised regarding each topic come from a highly personal perspective. These questions are followed by summary questions which are my attempt to identify the common core of my original questions.

I decided after reading and discussing the Symposium topics with the various presentors that there was a new line of questions I would like to pursue within each of the topics and in turn I again looked for a common core of inquiry which resulted in my "final" list of questions. Hopefully my line of questions will prove enlightening.

1. Teaching Strategies for the Gifted and Talented
   - a) Can schools economically apply the recommended teaching strategies?
   - b) How can teachers be made to feel comfortable employing teaching strategies that encourage divergence and pupil centered locus of control and responsibility?
   - c) Will learning resulting from the use of these strategies appropriately generalize beyond the classroom?
2. Using Children's Books for Creative and Cognitive Development
   - a) Are some characters in literature so formidable they tend to dampen the learner's aspirations?
   - b) Does literature depict the human condition too romantically?
   - c) Can conceptual development be fostered "vicariously?"
3. Counseling Strategies Addressing the Unique Career Decision of Gifted and Talented
   - a) How many jobs are there for individual's who excel vocationally?
   - b) How long can one excel in a particular position?
   - c) What is the cost in fulfilling family and other social roles when one excels vocationally?

4. Discovering The Many Facets of Creativity

   a) Does fostering individual creativity hold the potential for destroying the social order?

   b) Do parents, teachers, and pupils have the patience and value the effort needed for the creative processes to work?

   c) Is there a creative process or are there multiple creative processes?

5. Educating the Forgotten Half

   a) Will there be a cost in left hemispheric development when attending to right hemispheric development?

   b) What instructional materials lend themselves to right hemispheric development?

   c) Are teachers who can foster right hemispheric development unique?

6. Sensitizing Ourselves to the Unique Concerns of the Culturally Gifted Child

   a) How can cultures gain general acceptance for the talents they prize?

   b) How can a culturally talented child relate to the majority culture in order to sustain self esteem and cross cultural relevance?

   c) What talents are cross cultural?

7. Parents - The Prime Resource: Support Groups for Parents of the Gifted and Talented

   a) How do parents determine whether limits they place on their children are facilitating development?

   b) How do parents speak as one and yet maintain their individuality?

   c) Does a single parent have to compensate for the absent parent?

8. Mentoring: What It Is and How to Use It As a Guide and Resource for the Talented

   a) What are the personal attributes of effective mentors?

   b) Is mentoring an equally appropriate approach across all talent areas?

   c) What assistance does the mentor require when the mentee achieves equality? superiority?

9. Gifted and Talented Children: Why They Think, Feel, and Act So Excitingly Different!

   a) To what extent is the excitability evidenced by gifted children glandular?

   b) How long can the gifted child's excitability go unattended before it atrophies?

   c) How can a gifted child's self esteem be maintained when experiencing differing rates of physical, social, conceptual, and emotional growth in comparison to same age peers?

10. Recognizing and Planning How to Meet the Needs of the Athletically Gifted

a) Do coaches know how to respond effectively to self directed (internal locus of control) athletes?

b) Does primarily attending to one's physical-athletic development necessarily have an adverse effect on social, emotional, and conceptual development?

c) Why is athletic talent valued or prized in nearly all societies?

11. Designing and Conducting Group Counseling for Gifted and Talented Students

a) Can "counseling" occur in a group context?

b) Does participating in group counseling require compromising one's individuality?

c) Do effective group counselors have unique conceptual skills?

12. Understanding the Family's Influence on the Gifted and Talented

a) Is giftedness inherited?

b) Will talent emerge in some manner regardless of family functioning?

c) Given Roe's research that eminence among scientist was compensatory, will family "wellness" destroy the attaining of eminence in scientific fields?

13. Sex Role Influences on Lifestyle and Career Development of the Gifted and Talented

a) Are there genetic differences in the cognitive structures

b) What are the most powerful social determinants of sex role stereotyping and how can they be minimized?

c) Given differences in rates of physical and social maturation, why haven't corresponding differences been discovered in rates of conceptual maturation?

14. Growing Up Talented: A Commentary by Talented Persons

a) What are the advantages and disadvantages of being identified as talented when one is young?

b) How could the University serve you better?

c) The talented are viewed as a valuable resource for meeting the challenges of tomorrow. What challenge do you plan to address?

SUMMARY QUESTIONS

1. How do the physical, social and psychological aspects of an individual play off one another?

2. Do valid hypotheses or personal beliefs dominate our thinking and behavior regarding talent and talent development?

3. What happens to the unattended aspects of the human system when one aspect (talent area) is singled out for attention? What happens if one aspect of the human system does not receive more attention then other aspects?

QUESTIONS FOLLOWING DISCUSSION/READING OF SYMPOSIUM PRESENTATIONS

TOPIC 1 How can teachers manage to involve pupils as partners in learning process? How would a classroom function when the locus of control and responsibility did not reside *solely* with the teachers? Can there be a democratic classroom?

TOPIC 2 How should a student be prepared to experience a literary work? How do outcomes differ when reading for some specific objectives?

TOPIC 3 What percent of the population can excel, can be creative in our society?

TOPIC 4 How far do others permit individuals to stray from the norm? Is creativity essentially a domain within an individual? What happens when creative individuals come together for the purpose of a cooperative effort?

TOPIC 5 What special training would teachers require in order to foster right hemispheric development in pupils?

TOPIC 6 Must a behavior be economically valued to become socially valued?

TOPIC 7 What are the advantages of being a child in a single parent family? Is parenting more an art than a science, more dependent upon sensitive feelings and responding than sound judgement?

TOPIC 8 Must a mentor achieve a certain level of personal development (e.g., Erikson's Generativity Stage) to effect a mentoring relationship?

TOPIC 9 What is known about mental energy (excitability)? Is mental excitability experienced and manifested differently if ignited by the individual or by others?

TOPIC 10 What do athletics contribute to and extract from society? How does one get to know the person devoid of his/her athletic trappings?

TOPIC 11 How can talented individuals learn the value of unselfishness? Is talent so fragile in its early stages that it cannot withstand peer pressure to be normal?

TOPIC 12 Given Roe's research regarding compensatory motivation serving as the basis for the achievements of eminent physical and social scientists, can a family, a school environment be "too good"? Must conflict and unfulfilled needs serve as the foundation for achieving eminence?

TOPIC 13 Given the lifetime importance of knowing who one is (idenity), how do emerging and changing sex roles, family roles, work roles interact? How are the interactions experienced?

TOPIC 14 Do University faculty recognize and respond to creative behavior in students? What factors in the University community encourage and discourage excellence? What is excellence?

FINAL SET OF QUESTIONS

1. How do we counterbalance the talented individual's need to actualize with society's need to harmonize?
2. How do we foster an appreciation for, and develop the talented individual's conceptual and creative thought processes in concert? with one another?
3. Are there conceptual and creative attainments required to effectively parent, teach, counsel, and mentor talented students?
4. Can eminence only be forged through intrapersonal or interpersonal conflict?

CONCLUSION

As a result of your participation......

:::Hopefully any answers you have obtained have lead to more meaningful questions.

:::Lastly, it is our intent that you view the Symposium as the beginning of a dialogue between the presentors and participants and that you will contact us when you wish to pursue any questions.

Thank you

x

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

by:

Donna Rae Clasen

University of Wisconsin-Madison

1982

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

by:

Donna Rae Clasen

Somewhere along the educational pathway we have come to believe that what we learn today should somehow prepare us for tomorrow and that what school does should prepare children for life. Yet how can this be done when we are constantly confronted with a world of change, change that is rapid and often tumultuous? Basic concepts change over night as media sources announce break-throughs in genetic engineering, test tube reproduction, cloning and space exploration. With alarming rapidity facts and figures, names and places become obsolete and are replaced with new masses of information whose longevity is also suspect.

This powerful takeoff of knowledge rockets us into the future at breath-taking speed and causes turbulence in all institutions. Not only do facts and bits of knowledge become obsolete but so do existing systems, methods and procedures. So it is with education. As all else changes, so must schooling. In this paper our specific concern with change is in the educational experiences of the gifted and talented students, but what occurs for them must happen for all students in appropriate, modified patterns.

Growing awareness of the rapidity with which facts become obsolete and knowledge changes has made us aware that the former emphasis placed upon the learning of content must change. Increasingly, educators are seeking teaching strategies that focus on how content is presented rather than on content per se. In recognition that we remember better the way in which we were taught than what we were taught, greater attention is focusing on instructional strategies which encourage independent learning, independent inquiry, problem solving and problem finding. The goal is to teach students content using strategies which they in turn can adopt. The intent is to provide students with intellectual skills that will help them to discover new knowledge for themselves, to identify and tackle problems before they are overwhelming and to search for a variety of solutions to known problems. To do all this requires a repertoire of special strategies.

The word "strategies" comes from the Greek word for generalship. It has to do with maneuvering of forces into the most advantageous position possible prior to an engagement. For an engagement to end in a victory, the general must be aware of the terrain, his or her own resources, strengths and weaknesses and the capacities and capabilities of those about to be engaged. Failure to have adequate knowledge in any of these areas could well lead to ignominious defeat. It is in this light that the word strategies makes sense when we speak of the education of the talented and gifted.

In a sense, the teacher is a general — not in the autocratic, dictatorial meaning, but in the leadership one. Someone has to be in charge. Someone must be responsible for the group's movement toward its goals and objectives. Someone also must be responsible for knowing the characteristics of those whom he/she must guide and sensing how their abilities can best be strengthened. This person is the teacher; and it is the teacher who should have at his/her disposal an arsenal of strategies to use on the turf of content, to model for students and to give to them for lasting use.

The gifted individuals with whom the teacher will be interacting will vary widely. In fact, in their capacities and capabilities, they may vary among themselves as much as they will vary from a regular population. Yet there will be common dimensions among them that should be taken into consideration when planning the teaching strategies to be used: There is their ability to go broader, deeper, faster. There is their ability and need to deal with more complex issues and abstract concepts, whether in science, the arts or social problem solving. And there is their ability to see and understand complex relationships both on a practical and abstract level. Within all these capabilities will be other more specific strengths and abilities. The instructional strategies selected for use with these students should have the potential to nurture and extend all these abilities. In addition, they should recognize, accept, glorify and depend upon human variability.

A number of strategies lend themselves to these criteria: independent inquiry, discovery learning, problem solving (present and future), and problem finding, the later becoming increasingly important as we see the need to identify major problems before they are upon us. These strategies involve students in higher-level intellectual processing, allow for diversity in answers and respect individual differences. Such strategies interact well with the capabilities of gifted students and with their ability to take more control over what they learn and how they learn it. And all of the strategies are dependent upon a skill that may be the primary key to all learning — questioning.

Questioning as an instructional strategy merits special attention because it is via this technique that the teacher will most effectively model his or her approach toward knowledge, or, even more, a philosophy toward learning. The questions the teacher poses for students will help determine the questions students themselves will raise, and the patterns being developed in the classroom will heavily influence how students will deal with knowledge confronted beyond the classroom. For example, when questions demand only knowledge of facts or the recall of what was printed in the book or stated by the teacher, then content appears sacred, a certainty to be committed to memory, at least until testing time. The result is that eventually a fanatic allegiance develops toward content and frequently toward the belief that there is only one right answer.

But if the questions raised require students to analyze, synthesize and evaluate content rather than memorize it, then students are required to draw on their experiential bases as well as their knowledge to create new ideas and expressions and to make decisions by valuing and weighing various pieces of information. Here the approach toward knowledge is an open one and allows for a bit of skepticism or uncertainty to exist regarding any body of information. The result is that students and teachers become involved in a common search for answers. A spirit of both cooperative and independent inquiry develops, and an awareness emerges that the joy of discovery is still available to everyone -- the joy to discover what is known and what is unknown.

Gifted children in particular need opportunities to analyze, synthesize and evalutate the world about them; and they need these opportunities early and in abundance. They also need multiple opportunities to work with questioning which nurtures and strengthens divergent thinking. Divergent or productive thinking involves those cognitive processes which encourage a number of answers and a variety of solutions and which strengthen the creative-thinking dimensions of fluency, flexibility, elaborateness and originality.

Because the divergent production strategies are frquently identified as creative-thinking strategies, they are too often reserved for special occasions: creative writing, creative dramatics, creative games. If they are to become truly effective tools for the gifted, however, they must become regular classroom strategies where they can help the gifted realize that it is not necessarily the "right" answer which is to be valued but rather the unique and original one.

It is this emphasis on skills which encourage creative production, that is, the ability to bring something new into existence out of given materials, that makes the divergent-questioning techniques so relevant today as we are constantly challenged to take old information and make something new out of it. But to become skilled at this, students need practice, and they need this practice in the classroom. To illustrate how such questioning patterns can interact with content, examples can be drawn with four types of divergent questions: quantity type questions, forced association, reorganization and viewpoint questions.

Quantity type:

Quantity type questions seek many responses. They are a kind of brainstorming. The quantity type question is one of the few educational strategies which force students to practice the critical communication skill of withholding judgment. The goal of such questions is to pattern rejection of the quick answer or the "quick fix." For example: What are all the ways in which we can conserve energy? What are all the ways in which we can produce new forms of energy? What are all the reasons for inflation? As with brainstorming, it is often after the ready answers have been given that the unique answers of quality begin to appear.

Forced Associations:

Forced associations force seemingly disparate items together. They are a form of analagous thought, a process in which gifted children often have high ability. Their goal is to make students comfortable with the unfamiliar. For example: How will space colonization be like (unlike) our North American migration? How is a cracked egg like our earth? Approaching American history or geology in this way demands the understanding of basic concepts (migration, plate tectonics) which will serve long after some of the more detailed facts are either forgotten or altered.

Reorganization Questions:

Reorganization questions open our mind to accept change. By having worked through some implications of change during the school years, one is better prepared to deal with it in later life. The goal of such questions is to help students eschew the habitual thought, to consider seriously the "what if's." For example: Suppose scientists discover that everyone can develop his/her ESP (extra-sensory perception) so that writing and speaking become unnecessary? Suppose that all education becomes computerized? Suppose that we receive communication from the planet Ceti?

Viewpoint Questions:

Viewpoint questions help develop understanding and acceptance of human diversity. Such questions ask us to approach knowledge with an understanding that how one sees it depends upon his/her perceptual, emotional and societal relationship to the information. The goal of these questions is to provide experiences in affective growth that can range from simple perspective to empathic understanding. For example: How was the death of Sadat viewed by Egyption, American, Russian, Libyan? What are the implications of Poland's Solidarity to Russia, America, Poland?

These divergent-thinking questions are part of a larger system of divergent-production strategies which can be used in working with the gifted. Brainstorming, attribute listing, nominal group processing, force field analysis, future problem-solving, and synectics are all strategies which encourage independent thinking and the search for a variety of answers or solutions. Such strategies have several advantages. By adaptation, each of these can be used in K-12. They fit easily into the classroom with younger children; but they can also be raised to high levels of sophistication which require the use of increasingly complex mental processes and which depend upon the ability to see interarching relationships, their consequences and implications. Further, they can command a more global and universal approach to knowledge and current problems. In all instances they draw upon capabilities which the gifted possess.

Discussion of the use of divergent-production strategies urges a return to the analogy of strategies in encounters or engagements. In choosing the most effective strategies for an experience, one must consider the terrain or environment where the strategies will be used. If the terrain is not right, the strategies will lose their effectiveness, even, in some instances be detrimental. What is necessary for the divergent-production strategies to flourish and develop is that type of environment which can be called a psychologically safe environment.

The psychologically safe environment is one in which judgment is suspended while divergency is sought. Autonomy and independent inquiry are encouraged and contributions of each participant are sought and valued. The willingness to take cognitive risks is validated. A basic trust exists between teacher and students; and where possible, the teacher allows the student freedom of choice in what to learn and how to learn it. Like all good leaders, the teacher knows when to let others take charge. In return, the student trusts the teacher to be available as a resource and guide. It is only in this terrain that divergent thinking will grow and develop and where these forces can assume the most advantageous position for a successful learning engagement.

It seems evident, then, that instructional strategies deserve special attention when planning the educational experiences of the gifted and talented. Selections of strategies should reflect consideration of the needs and capabilities of the gifted as well as awareness of education's responsibility to alter its system to prepare students better to deal with the rapid change and increasing problems of today's world. Perhaps Charles Silberman said it best in Crisis in the Classroom when he stated that education should prepare students to solve problems that do not yet exist with tools still to be invented. Silberman concludes that this can be done only by teaching children how to learn.

The strategies and related features mentioned here are not limited to use with gifted and talented children. They are for all children with appropriate modifications: their implementation will enhance and enrich the educational experience of all. However, because of the openness and autonomous dimensions of these strategies, they are particularly suited to the gifted students' ability to transcend content and to go faster, broader and deeper with greater control over the learning experience.

USING CHILDREN'S BOOKS
FOR CREATIVE AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Robin Deutsch

University of Wisconsin-Madison

1982

USING CHILDREN'S BOOKS FOR CREATIVE AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

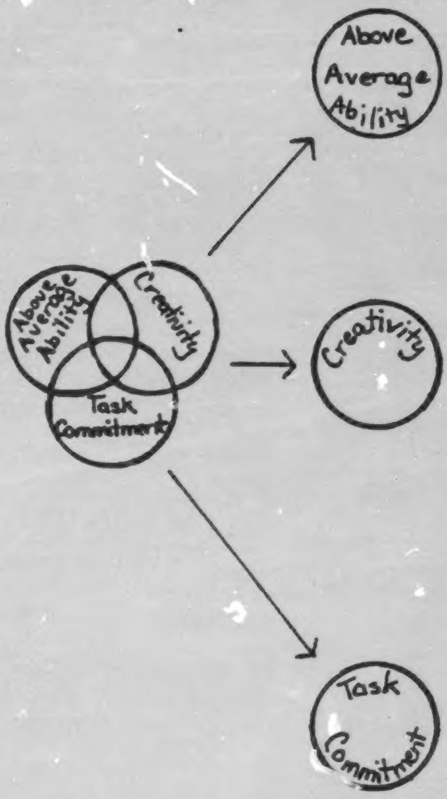
Robin Deutsch

INTRODUCTION

Parents and teachers of gifted and talented children often express concern as to how they can meet the needs of their gifted child or student. These needs are in fact derived from characteristics of giftedness. The characteristics within the three ring conception of giftedness (Renzulli, 1978) can be viewed in the chart on the following page.

Some of these characteristics may be manifest as potential problems (Colangelo, Zaffrann, 1976). For example, a characteristic which is typically part of the above average ability ring and is a potential problem is critical analytic thinking. This characteristic can result in challenging teacher or parental ideas and assertions with sophisticated counterproposals (Parker, Ross, Deutsch 1980). Divergent thinking characteristics - flexibility, imagination, fluency - can result in alienation from age mates and significant adults. And in the task commitment ring, intense involvement and perseverence should lead to a focus on personal inadequacies rather than strengths. Sisk (1981) notes that specific characteristics of perfectionism, supersensitivity, and unrealistic expectations for self and others

I. Definition (Renzulli, 1978)



II. Characteristics

large fund of information
keen memory
learns quickly
abstracts/generalizes
critical analytic

fluent
flexible
original
elaborative
curious
imaginative
inventive

intense involvement
concentrates on intersts
creates and shares products
high level of energy and activity
enthusiastic about interests
perseverent

WHO ARE THE GIFTED?

III. Needs

1. To be challenged by experiences which require complex levels of thought. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
2. To be challenged by opportunities for divergent production. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
3. To be challenged by opportunities to demonstrate process/product outcome. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
4. To be challenged by discussions with intellectual peers. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
5. To be challenged by opportunities to see interrelationships in all areas of knowledge. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
6. To be challenged by exposure to new areas of learning. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
7. To be challenged by opportunity to apply critical and creative thinking skills to real problems in areas of interest. (Van Tassel Basca, 1980)
8. To be challenged by opportunities to examine moral dilemmas as found in social situations, media etc. (Drews, 1971)
9. To be challenged by opportunities to evaluate judgments.
10. To be challenged by opportunities to develop talents and interests from individual preference, rather than from sex-typed, socially prescribed bias. (Parker, Ross, Deutsch, 1980)

Prepared by Robin M. Deutsch

contribute to a particular vulnerability in gifted children.

The characteristics of gifted children do in fact separate them from their peers. The potential problem aspect is characteristic of those gifted children who respond to feeling different by withdrawing psychologically or physically, acting out or "misbehaving", showing off, or focusing on their inadequacies. In fact these behaviors are often a response to having unrealistic expectations about self, e.g., needing to excel in all areas, having keen reasoning abilities, and seeing and solving problems differently than others.

In addition, research by Drews (1972), Gowan and Bruch (1971), and Sisk (1981) noted that gifted children differed from their age mates in concern with values and morals. More specifically, Sisk (1981) found that death, people's inhumanity to people, war, poverty and cruelty were reported as fears of gifted children ages 4-14 in 88% of cases.

BIBLIOTHERAPY: RESEARCH REVIEW

One strategy to deal with potential or actual problems or concerns of gifted children is bibliotherapy. Webster's New International Dictionary, 3rd edition, defines bibliotherapy as "guidance in the solution of personal problems through directed reading." Implicit in this definition is that the reader must become involved with a book such that by reading thoughts, behaviors and/or feelings are changed.

In this discussion, bibliotherapy is not treatment for mental disorders. It is however a means to address developmental issues in social, emotional, cognitive and moral domains, in such a way that the reader and literature interact.

Labuda (1974) reports that gifted children need more reading guidance than their peers. Schrank and Engels (1981) report that based on their research review, bibliotherapy is effective for developing assertiveness, attitude change, helper effectiveness, self development, and therapeutic gains.

Cornett and Cornett (1980) report that the bibliotherapy process produces the following affective changes: promoting empathy, creating positive attitudes, promoting personal and social adjustment, developing positive self-image, relieving emotional pressures, developing new interests, promoting tolerance, respect and acceptance of others, encouraging realization that there is good in all people, helping the reader to identify socially accepted behaviors, stimulating examination of moral values, and creating the desire to emulate models.

Cornett and Cornett (1980) also list the following cognitive changes realized by the bibliotherapy process: stimulating critical thinking (analysis, drawing conclusions, problem solving, decision making, evaluation), seeing the universality of problems, providing vicarious experiences, providing insight into human behavior and motives, developing the ability for self-evaluation, challenging the reader to consider higher-level reasoning, encouraging planning before taking a course of action, permitting discussion on an impersonal level, revealing that problems have many alternative solutions and individuals have choices in solving problems.

PROCESS OF BIBLIOTHERAPY

The stages of bibliotherapy as identified by Shrodes (1955) are:

1. Identification: the reader empathizes with a real or fictional character and becomes aware of the parallels between her/his own life and the one in the book.

2. Catharsis: in this "peaking of identification", the reader releases pent-up emotions under safe circumstances. There is a sense of security in "the illusion of standing apart and of being involved."

3. Insight: possible problem solutions or alternatives are identified.

4. Sisk (1981) adds this fourth step of action or changed behavior.

Bibliotherapy must address a specific problem. These problems can include being gifted or different, war, death, divorce, moral issues, etc. In this model it must also address a specific need of gifted children (see chart p.2). Books provide vicarious life experiences that are necessary for gifted children to develop an experiential level beyond their chronological level (Roslak, Deutsch 1982).

MODEL FOR BIBLIOTHERAPY

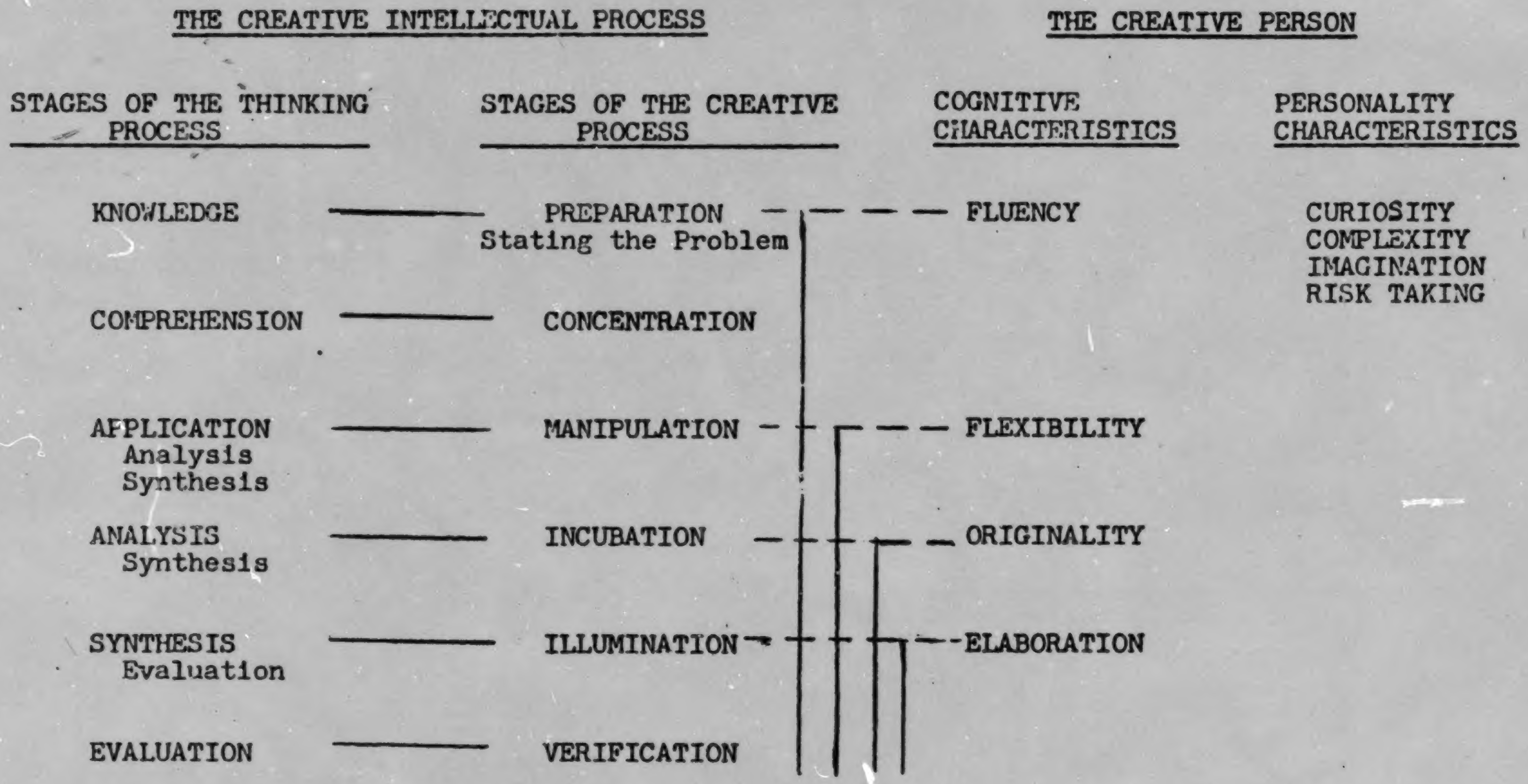
A model for bibliotherapy with gifted children can perhaps be best understood by the chart developed by Deutsch and Roslak (1980). This model encourages reading creatively and purposefully to solve problems.

Bloom's (1956) hierarchy of thinking processes from simple to complex are found on the left end of the chart (column 1). The processes of creativity, both cognitive and affective as defined by Williams (1970) are found on the right half of the chart (columns 3 and 4). The second column integrates thinking processes and creative behaviors into a creative process.

The components of the creative process then look like this:

1. Preparation stage: using fluency, one pursues many ideas; develops a storehouse of knowledge about a topic or theme; prepares for reading (the recall/memory function provides a foundation for reading).
2. Concentration stage: reading to understand.

THE COMPONENTS OF THE CREATIVE PROCESS



THE CREATIVE INTELLECTUAL PROCESS		THE CREATIVE PERSON	
STAGES OF THE THINKING PROCESS	STAGES OF THE CREATIVE PROCESS	COGNITIVE CHARACTERISTICS	PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS
KNOWLEDGE	PREPARATION Stating the Problem	FLUENCY	CURIOSITY COMPLEXITY IMAGINATION RISK TAKING
COMPREHENSION	CONCENTRATION		
APPLICATION Analysis Synthesis	MANIPULATION	FLEXIBILITY	
ANALYSIS Synthesis	INCUBATION	ORIGINALITY	
SYNTHESIS Evaluation	ILLUMINATION	ELABORATION	
EVALUATION	VERIFICATION		

Deutsch & Roslak
June, 1980

3. Manipulation stage: apply some understanding; using flexibility the reader might analyze, synthesize information.

4. Incubation stage: reader analyzes, breaks apart book; begins to develop unique ideas/connections.

5. Illumination stage: catharsis and insight take place: reader elaborates on identification and develops solutions, patterns, alternatives blending book and own life.

6. Verification stage: evaluate ideas; behavior change or action.

USING BIBLIOTHERAPY

Book: Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes by Eleanor Coerr.
New York: G.P. Putnam, 1977.

Summary: This is the true story of Sadako Sasaki, a 12 year old Japanese girl, who was two years old when an atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima. Ten years later she had leukemia as a result of radiation from the bomb. Her courage as a victim of World War II became a legend for children in Japan who visit her memorial in Hiroshima Peace Park to leave paper cranes.

Objectives: 1. To use the book for children who are dealing with issues of sickness, death, and/or the effects of war.

2. To develop creative and critical thinking processes in the reader.
3. To explore values.

How to use this book:

1. Preparation (creating a knowledge base):

   Creating a mind set, provide background about World War II, the dropping of the bomb, and the effects of this explosion.

2. Concentration - Comprehension - Identification:

   The reader identifies with Sadako and becomes aware of similarities and differences between self and Sadako, and 1945 and 1982.

3. Application - Manipulation:

   What are the destructive effects of the atomic bomb?
   How are leukemia victims treated?
   Make origami paper cranes.

4. Incubation - Analysis - Catharsis:

   Compare Sadako's life with your own.
   Sadako was born 37 years ago. Why is this book still interesting to us?

5. Illumination - Synthesis - Insight:

What could you do to prevent Hiroshima from happening again?

Paper cranes are a symbol of Sadako's short life and the quest for peace. What is symbolic of your life?

6. Verification - Evaluation - Action:

Sadako is internationally known. Why Sadako?

Do you believe the United States was right in dropping the atomic bomb? Explain.

How do you think the United States should respond to war today? How should individuals respond?

Do you believe the risks of radiation are worth the uses of atomic energy?

CONCLUSION

This is an example of implementing bibliotherapy - preparation and discussion for using a specific book for a specific problem with a specific child. The research indicates that bibliotherapy has positive effects. This paper focuses on a model to encourage critical and creative thinking processes and behaviors while providing guidance in the solution of specific personal problems or issues.

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VOCATIONAL EXPRESSION OF HUMAN TALENT

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1982

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INTRODUCTION

Bloom and Sosniak (1981) in studying the career processes of gifted athletes, scientists, and performing artists discovered marked discrepancies in talented individual's perception of how home, school, and "work" contribute to their career planning and decision-making. A major source of discrepancy occurs because of the socially determined functions of home, school, and work in utilizing and fostering talent. The school system has been ascribed responsibility for providing the knowledge deemed necessary for the culture to endure, and for the individual to survive and contribute; the home has responsibilities for socializing the individual and providing a moral code; and work provides a means of self realization and social contribution.

The purpose of this presentation is to identify relevant roles for the home, school, and work in fostering the career processes of talented individuals. This will be accomplished through analysis of talented persons characteristics and their career development processes.

We assume that to a large degree, meeting the career development needs of talented children has been confounded by:

1. lack of knowledge regarding talented persons development,
2. a history of social exploitation of human talent in meeting national needs, and
3. poor definition of relevant family, school, and work roles in fostering career development of talented individuals.

FOLLOW-UP RESEARCH

There are several ways in which the career development, career decision-making, and occupational aspirations of the gifted and talented differ from the general population. A recent follow-up study (Post and Perrone, 1982) of nearly 600 academically talented Wisconsin high school graduates, many of whom are now in their mid-thirties, produced the following results:

1. The academically talented plan to, and enter, the occupation preferred in high school more frequently than students in general.
2. The academically talented are attracted to what the vocational psychologist, Holland (1973), describes as investigative occupations which require observation and systematic analysis and understanding of natural or social phenomenon.
3. The academically talented have a tendency to avoid social type and repetitive jobs.

4. Talented students prefer a job where they can continue to learn.
5. They are psychologically more involved in their work than most individuals.
6. Those academically talented who enter what Holland describes as _social_ occupations (e.g., teaching, counseling, and social work) indicate the greatest concern regarding having failed to realize their educational and occupational potentials.
7. Academically talented persons rely on success in particular high school subjects and liking teachers in particular school subjects as the basis for chosing a field of study in college, and as the basis for their eventual occupational choice. Personal values and long term goals apparently do not influence their career preferences.

In summary, these follow-up results highlight the need to broaden academically talented students' career perspective and assist them in establishing and pursuing personally meaningful career goals.

TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

A distinction exists between the attitudes and skills the academically talented must manifest in order to excel in school and on-the-job. The behaviors required to excel in school include adjusting to an environment which stresses answer-absorbing, fixed instructional programs, teacher initiative and direction, isolated content, memorized answers, with an emphasis on learning from textbooks — essentially a consumer role. These behaviors stand in contrast to the attitudes and behaviors considered necessary to excel vocationally; active answer-seeking, question raising, using flexible schedules, taking personal initiative, active participation in group planning, and problem awareness — essentially a producer role. It can be hypothesized that being conditioned to excel as a student-consumer makes the transition to worker-producer exceedingly difficult.

From another perspective, the primary educational interventions advocated by gifted educators, that is, acceleration and enrichment, evidence a striking parallel to the consumer and producer roles. Acceleration can be described as pacing the rate of instruction to the rate of student learning in order to foster an "efficient consumer." Enrichment seems directed more toward creating an "active-producer." A few learning outcomes of being a consumer and being a producer include:

Consumer (Acceleration)	Producer (Enrichment)
knows the correct answers	asks meaningful questions
duplicates	creates
follow directions	self-directed

remembers specifics	recognizes concepts
concerned with personal accomplishments	concerned with social progress
problem solver	discovers problems

Producer types who feel good about themselves and who excel vocationally can be characterized as experiencing:

: a sense of worth - (respecting oneself, knowing what is right and wrong for self, and having a desire to be understood)

: a sense of uniquesness - (valuing one's novel perception of self, others, and the environment)

: a sense of self-sufficiency - (acquiring the skills needed to insure satisfaction of human needs, successfully adapting to uncontrollable roles, rules, and structures)

: a sense of social accord and belonging - (identifying with and being accepted by those from whom one derives his/her values, caring for and being cared for by others)

: a sense of potency - (expecting one's behavior to a large extent can determine the occurrence of desired outcomes)

: a sense of commitment - (personal meaningfulness, belief in some certainties in a world of probabilities and change)

: a sense of mortality - (a time perspective - the relationship of present decisions/activities to possible future goal attainment)

Work

The skills needed to excell vocationally have been identified by the Department of Labor (1965) in their exhaustive study of job functions. The study assumed that most jobs require a worker to function to some degree in relation to Data, People, and/or Things. These various functions are arranged in behavioral hierarchies ranging from the relatively simple to complex. It is assumed that each higher function (e.g., synthesizing, mentoring, and setting-up) includes those that are simpler or lower in the hierarchy. Nearly 50,000 jobs have been analyzed in terms of the highest required level of Data, People, and/or Things functions. Listed below are the hierarchies under each category.

DATA (4th digit)	PEOPLE (5th digit)	THINGS (6th digit)
0-Synthesizing	0-Mentoring	0-Setting-up
1-Coordinating	1-Negotiating	1-Precision Working
2-Analyzing	2-Instructing	2-Operating-Controlling
3-Compiling	3-Supervising	3-Driving-Operating
4-Computing	4-Diverting	4-Manipulating
5-Copying	5-Persuading	5-Tending
6-Comparing	6-Speaking-Signaling	6-Feeding-Offbearing
7- No significant	7-Serving	7-Handling
8-relationship	8-No significant relationship	8-No significant relationship

The vocational skills the academically talented most likely need to master include the more complex DATA and PEOPLE behaviors. The most difficult behaviors to learn and master are defined below.

DATA: (general definition) Information, knowledge, and conceptions, related to Data, People, or Things, obtained by observation, interpretation, visualization, mental creation; incapable of being touched; written data take the form of numbers, words, symbols; other data are ideas, concepts, oral verbalization.

Higher Levels

0-Synthesizing: Integrating analyses of data to discover facts and/or develop knowledge, concepts or interpretations.

1-Coordinating: Determining time, place, and sequence of operations or action to be taken on the basis of analysis of data; executing decisions and/or reporting on events.

2-Analyzing: Examining and evaluating data. Presenting alternative actions in relation to the evaluation is frequently involved.

3-Compiling: Gathering, collating, or classifying information about Data, People, or Things. Reporting and/or carrying out a prescribed action in relation to the information is frequently involved.

4-Computing: Performing arithmetic operations and reporting on and/or carrying out a prescribed action in relation to them. Does not include counting.

PEOPLE: (general definition) Human beings; also animals dealt with on an individual basis as if they were human.

Higher Levels

0-Mentoring: Dealing with individuals in terms of their total personality in order to advise, counsel, and/or guide them with regard to problems that may be resolved by legal, scientific, clinical, spiritual, and/or other professional principles.

1-Negotiating: Exchanging ideas, information, and opinions with others to formulate policies and programs and/or arrive jointly at decisions, conclusions, or solutions.

2-Instructing: Teaching subject matter to others, or training others (including animals) through explanation, demonstration, and supervised practice; or making recommendations on the basis of technical disciplines.

3-Supervising: Determining or interpreting work procedures for a group of workers, assigning specific duties to

	them, maintaining harmonious relations among them, and promoting efficiency.
4-Diverting:	Amusing others.
5-Persuading:	Influencing others in favor of a product, service, or point of view.
6-Speaking-Signaling:	Talking with and/or signaling people to convey or exchange information. Includes giving assignments and/or directions to helpers or assistants.

It should be seen from the above that six of the seven attitudes are learned through interpersonal relations with parents, teachers, peers, and other family members. In examining the higher level functions within the Data category, it can be seen that interpersonal communications, admittedly of different types, are fundamental in acquiring these Data processing skills.

Curriculum should be the primary vehicle for teaching these processing skills. The learning outcomes primarily serve as end points for learning these important processes.

The attitudes and skills which are most relevant in achieving occupational eminence are learned through active dialogue with individuals who think in more complex ways than the "learner." It seems quite understandable why academically talented may fail to achieve occupational eminence as readily as they achieved educational eminence.

The charts which follow provide a linkage between desired career oriented outcomes, self actualizing attitudes and parent, teacher, and counselor roles. The overview which these charts provide must be supplemented with specific intervention modes which are consistent with the personalities, skills, and resources available to the parent, teacher, and counselor.

Career Dispositions of the Talented Producer	Parent Role	Teacher Role	Counselor Role	Functional Attitudes & Characteristics
Asks Meaningful Questions	Avoid the security of undisputed answers. Maintain an attitude of "each answer is a new question."	Offer specific skills to enable talented child to construct meaningful questions. Provide strategies to search for partial answers. Teach analysis, coordinating and negotiating.	Monitor levels of ambiguity, uncertainty: Teach functional questioning, communication and stress management.	Career tracking skills. Sense of commitment and mortality.

Career Dispositions of the Talented Producer	Parent Role	Teacher Role	Counselor Role	Functional Attitudes & Characteristics
Creates, Discovers Problems	Allow for inspirational discovery. Do not constrain development to previous family member accomplishments--kind or degree. Provide resources within a context. Assist your child to focus on a variety of school, community, peer resources to foster creative behaviors. Integration, Negotiation.	Communicate/teach creative problem generating and solving; alternate multi-modal learning. Relate activities to producer role of Synthesizing, analyzing, coordinating, compiling, computing. Encourage future projected learning-relating content to possible production.	Help the person to cope with social and institutional constraints on creative behavior through Negotiating, diverting, persuading, signaling.	A sense of: Self-sufficiency Potency Uniqueness

Career Dispositions of the Talented Producer	Parent Role	Teacher Role	Counselor Role	Functional Attitudes & Characteristics
Self-Directed	Guide rather than direct. Instill confidence to succeed in life tasks. Require limits and assist your son/daughter to acknowledge the social implications of his/her behavior.	Guide learning tasks. Provide internal, personal reinforcements and rewards for accomplishments. Model self-directed learning behaviors (internal locus of control). Introduce product oriented learning activities: Compiling, coordinating, synthesizing, computing.	Teach internal locus of control; confidence in pursuing goals. Utilize Goal Attainment Scaling and Assertiveness training. Supervising, persuading, signaling, negotiating.	A sense of: Worth Direction Self-sufficiency Potency

Career Dispositions of the Talented Producer	Parent Role	Teacher Role	Counselor Role	Functional Attitudes & Characteristics
Concept Recognition	Meaningfully participate in your child's elaborate dreams and expectations. Allow unique associations of ideas. Do not limit your child's learning by your own.	Participate in, rather than direct learning. Acknowledge unique relationships among content and thought. Encourage projection of inter-related concepts into future realities: Synthesizing, analyzing, computing, instructing.	Offer an opportunity to explore a philosophy of life beyond content. Communication skills to be understood and appreciated: Signaling, persuading, diverting, instructing.	A Sense of: Uniqueness Belonging Potency Mortality Commitment

Career Dispositions of the Talented Producer	Parent Role	Teacher Role	Counselor Role	Functional Attitudes & Characteristics
Concern with Social Progress	Teach responsibility to your child's developing talent, not to accomplishing your own needs for your child's achievement. Encourage your child to project and consider future issues. Teach cultural and social prescriptions of every occupation. Social-cultural compromise: Diplomacy, negotiating, diverting, persuading, speaking, signaling.	Communicate the role of perfection in an imperfect world. Integrate learning with cultural and human limitations. Teach relevance of learning accomplishments to future products. Field dependent styles: Mentoring, negotiating, instructing, persuading, signaling, diverting, coordinating, analyzing, synthesizing.	Integrate social, religious, moral values. Monitor value changes. Mentoring, negotiating, persuading, diverting.	A sense of: Uniqueness Self-sufficiency Belonging Commitment Mortality

Career Dispositions of the Talented Producer	Parent Role	Teacher Role	Counselor Role	Functional Attitudes & Characteristics
Challenges Rules	Willingness to assume that challenges may have meaning. Allow for rule adaptation to test hypothesis; your child is creating a future, not solving your past. Maintain your value systems and require your child to deal with them.	Enforce rules for common good, but be willing to adapt the rules to accommodate the individual good. Teach social responsibility of deviation from or changes in rules: Coordinating, synthesizing.	Communicate philosophical, moral, social responsibility to rules challenges. Persuading, signaling, negotiating.	A sense of: Worth Uniqueness Direction Self-sufficiency Social Accord Potency Commitment Mortality

Parents, teachers and counselors should work together to organize resources and create conditions whereby talented consumers move in the direction of becoming talented producers, acquiring and utilizing a variety of intellectual and social skills while mapping a career path.

The role descriptions in the charts are by no means all inclusive. They have been designed to encourage parents, teachers and counselors to question their attitudes and behaviors which influence talented youngsters to become consumers and/or producers.

Through ongoing research and service projects, GIFTS hopes to generate more effective strategies to foster needed career processes in talented students.

Assisting talented persons to become meaningful producers in a personally acceptable manner can greatly reduce the multiple career anxieties experienced by talented youngsters and those who have such lofty expectations for them.

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CREATIVITY: A MULTIFACETED PHENOMENA

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THE IMPORTANCE OF CREATIVITY

The value of fostering creativeness has been acknowledged, with fervor, by many (e.g., Guilford, 1950; Anderson, 1959; Parnes, 1971; Gilchrist, 1972; Majumdar, 1975; Bikson, 1978).

The realization of creative potential (1) ensures that the individual will be a more effective and fully functioning person, (2) increases societal chances for survival and (3) lays the groundwork for a circular relationship between the individual and society, where the realization of creative potential enchances the quality of society, which expedites the realization of creative potential, and so on.

Torrance has consistently argued (1962, 1965, 1980) that realization of creative potential is essential to "mental health, educational achievement, vocational success and many other important areas in life" (1965 p. 10-11), and enables the individual to deal with "the demands of a high change world" (1980, p.298). The effects of "prolonged and severe stifling of creative thinking" are severe, "inevitably creat(ing) overwhelming tension and breakdown" (1965, p. 10-11). He argues that "major psychotherapies" recognize the healing value of creativity and consequently strive to increase personal creativeness so that clients are better able to cope with stress. The idea is not new. Rogers (1959) asserted that "the mainspring of creativity appears to be the same tendency which we discover so deeply as the curative force in psychotherapy--man's tendency to actualize himself, to become his potentialities" (p. 72). Maslow (1972) in fact notes that the "overlap (is) almost perfect" (p.288) between his conceptualization of self actualized people (which matches Jung's, Fromm's and Rogers' descriptions of psychological health) and Torrance's (1962) research-based characterization of creative individuals.

Viewed as a "national crisis" and a "desperate situation" in 1959 (Anderson) and a "vital problem" in 1973 (Cornish), the realization of creative potential has implications for the very survival of our society. Toynbee (1964) argues that "to give a fair chance to potential creativity is a matter of life and death for any society" (p.4). Moreover, if a society promotes the realization of its members' creative potential and in turn their ability to become self actualized, then it serves to promote its members well being. Conversely, if the members of a society improve the condition of that society then, they have, in effect, improved the state of their own condition.

"Our great hope of building a peaceful, brilliant world civilization, based upon the best that all cultures can offer, lies in the vast potentiality of creative ideas." (Munk 1976, p. 195). Clearly, "nothing" can contribute more to the general welfare of our nation and the satisfactions and mental health of its people than a general raising of the level of creative behavior." (Torrance 1965, p. 10-11).

Despite the fact that for years researchers have been espousing the vital role of creativity in personal and societal well-being, many believe that little progress has actually been made in the widespread realization of creative potential. "One of the strange tendencies of this paradoxical age," Munk (1976) charges, "is that of relegating ideas and the persons in whose minds these ideas occur to a secondary place." (p. 195). Wiggins (1972) points out that "(c)reativity is not a dominant feature of any of (the) broad institutions which structure the lives of the United States people." (p.34).

APPROACHING THE REALIZATION OF CREATIVE POTENTIAL

On the the one hand, the discrepancy between (1) the value accorded creativity and (2) the degree to which creative potential is related could be explained by a conflict between (1) the theoretical value attached to creativeness and (2) the practical ramifications of developing creativity-related behavior. Clearly, people must be willing to do more than merely pay "lip service" to the importance of fostering creativeness. On the other hand, once parents, educators, business persons and others have made a commitment to the realization of creative potential, they need a viable means by which to follow through. Yet the approaches available to them seem to have two basic failings. On a very fundmental level, an effective approach to the realization of creative potential should refect an awareness of the many components involved in creativeness. As Sisk (1980) points out, it is important to view creativity as a multifaceted concept, and, Reese et al. (1976) observe, to analyze it accordingly. Instead, the vast and disjuncted creativity literature has resulted in a plethora of methods which are purported to deal with "creativity" but in fact only relate to discrete aspects of creativity (e.g., idea checklists and brainstorming--Osborne, 1963; creative dramatics-Way, 1967; Davis, Helfert & Shapira, 1971; Imagination Express--DiPego & Davis, 1973; Attribut Listing--Crawford, 1978; Creative Writing Ideas--Naumann, 1980; AUTA--Davis & O'Sullivan, 1981; Davis' Creativity is Forever, 1981, contains an excellent summary of many of these methods).

Current approaches to creativity development thus tend to lack comprehensiveness. A second problems has to do with their widespread application in the absence of an individual needs assessment. If an assessment is conducted, its goal is typically to identify who is supposedly creative and who is not. As such, assessment is a "dead end," for it offers no information as to how to turn things around for those unfortunate "non-creatives," nor how to encourage the "creatives." What is needed, in the opinion of the present authors, is a diagnostic assessment which can indicate where specifically to take action in order to faciliate the creativity of an individual or group (of course this presupposes that (1) everyone has some degree of creative potential (2) which can be fostered, assumptions which are admittedly controversial—see Gilchrist, 1972, for discussion of modifiability, Lingemann, 1982, for universality). It should be pointed out that the quarrel here is not with the quality of facilitation methods themselves - for in many cases they are excellent - but with their use as a means of increasing "creativity" when at best one component of creativeness may be effected, particularly with their indiscriminate application to individuals regardless of differing needs.

Thus, it is argued here that an effective approach to the realization of creative potential would involve three stages: (1) awareness of the essential components in creativeness and how they intereact, (2) assessment of an individual or group with respect to these components, and (3) action aimed at facilitating deficiencies.

The present paper will focus on the awareness and assessment stages, drawing implications from them for the action stages. A general awareness will be facilitated by outlining the components involved in creativeness, as discerned from the various areas of research found in the creativity literature. Two of the components will be detailed in terms of their defining variables, as well as the assessment of those variables and their implications for action.

COMPONENTS OF CREATIVENESS

Although the creativity literature has been classified in different ways, most classification systems recognize three categories of research: the creative person, the creative process and the creative product (e.g., Brittain & Beittel, 1960; Crosby, 1968; Dellas & Gaier, 1970; Getzels & Dillon, 1973; Golann, 1963; Gotesky & Breithaupt, 1978; Lesher, 1975; Morgan, 1953; Pagano, 1979; Romaniuk & Romaniuk, 1980; Taylor, 1975; Welsh, 1975).

Most additonal categories suggested can in fact be subsumed by the above three, or by an "Environment" (Brittain & Beittel, 1960; Dellas & Gaier, 1970; Lesher, 1973; Taylor, 1975) label.

Person Variables

The "person" component of creativity seems to include two basic types of variables--personological and cognitive (Dellas & Gaier, 1970), although the possible importance of physical skills and abilities must also be acknowledged. Decisions as to which category a particular characteristic belongs under are not always easy (and perhaps not even necessary). Certainly in some instances--"emotional" and "intelligent," for example--the appropriate classification is fairly obvious;

in other cases, however, classification is more difficult. There are characteristics, e.g., "reflective" and "flexible," which seem to be both personological and cognitive, as well as characteristics with a not readily-discernible classification, e.g., "original," "alert," and "tolerant of ambiguity." To complicate matters even further, the two types of variables can interact and influence one another; the expression of one's emotion may be tempered by one's intellect and vice versa. Thus the personological/cognitive distinction is made with the understanding that it is not always clearcut.

The personological category is typically described in terms of a "unified whole." As Dellas and Gaier (1970) see it, "a particular constellation of psychological traits emerges consistently in the creative individual and forms a recognizable schema of the creative personality" (p.67-68). Davis and Rimm (1977) observe that "considerable evidence reinforces (this notion..." (p. 511); Gilchrist (1972), Rookey and Reardon (1973b), Holmes (1976) and Amos (1978) reach the same conclusion. "If one describes someone as intelligent or creative," charge Freeman et al. (1968), "one is implicitly subscribing to a psychology of traits" (p.9). As used here, the personological component of creativity is a complicated (Hinton, 1970) "total personality system" (Dellas & Gaier), which includes attitudes, interests, motivations (Dellas & Gaier; Davis & Rimm), and emotions (Dellas & Gaier; Scheier, 1965), preferences, predispositions (Scheier), values, awareness, habits and "other 'dispositions'" (Davis & Rimm).

The cognitive aspect of creativity is seldom described as globally as the personological. It is instead often defined in terms of the dimensions tapped by Torrance, Guilford and Wallach and Kogan-type divergent thinking tests (e.g., Rookey & Reardon, 1973b; Welsh, 1975). There are problems with this practice. First of all the dimensions of fluency, flexibility, elaboration and originality--as defined by these tests--do not seem to be person variables. They are scored via products and thus seem more related to the product component than the person one. However, even if one maintains that the scores constitute indirect measures of person characteristics, it does not necessarily follow that these characteristics are cognitive. For example, fluency would seem more related to personological traits like "energeticness," and "inflexibility" as noted earlier, and can be both personological and cognitive.

The definition typically given to the cognitive component of creativity--what divergent thinking tests measure--is more than inappropriate, however, it is also limiting. It may, in fact, explain why the cognitive realm is currently considered inferior to the personological in predicting creativity. As Davis and Rimm (1977) point out, "more and more educators and other professionals are attending to personological or non-cognitive contributors to creativeness, with correspondingly less emphasis on the 'cognitive' capabilities"

(p. 546). Following an extensive literature review, Dellas and Gaier (1970) conclude that "creative persons are distinguished more by interests, attitudes and drives than by intellectual abilities." "In brief," they continue, "the roots of creativity do not seem to lie on convergent or divergent thinking but rather, as Hudson (1966) suggested, in the personality and motivational aspects of character" (p. 68). Freeman et al. (1968) come to a similar conclusion after undertaking a review of their own. They observe that "it seems highly likely that differences in creativity are more related to non-cognitive than to cognitive traits" (p. 15). Payne et al. (1975 believe the results of their study "perhaps underscores the non-cognitive nature "of the creative personality" (p. 105). The problem with these studies is that typically the cognitive component is defined in terms of a few distinct characteristics, while the personological component is defined in terms of many interrelated traits--a situation which does not afford valid comparisons of predictive ability. "Logically," as Davis and Rimm (1977) observe, "both non-cognitive and cognitive traits are essential for creative behavior" (p. 546). Scheier (1965) argues that they are equally important, and Arbet (1977) believes that together they form a creativity "complex." Rookey and Reardon (1973b) the point well: "Instructional programs which are designed with pupil creativity as a goal cannot be unidimensional. The program must prepare the pupil affectively as well as cognitively" (p. 13).

Thus an underlying assumption of the present paper is that both cognitive and personological variables define the creative person component of creativity.

Process Variables

"Process" refers to what goes on during the act of creation. Many believe a set of stages occur. Among those researchers there is disagreement as to how, many stages are involved. Wallas' (1926) four steps represent the traditional view. As Davis (1981) describes them, preparation involves clarifying the problem, incubation, "fringe conscious activity" illumination, "aha!", and verification, checking the solution. Parnes, Noller and Biondi (1977) hypothesize a five step creative process: fact finding (facts associated with the problem, problem-finding (thinking about the probelm in different ways), idea finding (coming up with solutions in a free wheeling manner), solution finding, (evaluating the solutions), and acceptance finding (putting the solution into practice). Harris (1959) advocates a six-step process, Fabun (1968), seven. At the other extreme, Davis (1981) suggests that two stages are sufficiently descriptive of the process--"The Big Idea Stage," in which the individual searches for a new idea, and "The Elaboration Stage," in which the idea is developed and elaborated.

Product Variables

As used here, "product" is not limited to tangible objects (such as a painting, for example), but rather refers to any creative result," e.g., a creative idea, a creative speech, etc. Within this category a distinction needs to be made between ability and productivity variables. Ability variables refer to product indices of creative talent. Although creative ability is occasionally defined on the basis of personality characteristics alone (e.g., Fromm, 1959; Levy, 1961), or in terms of a way of life (e.g., Anderson, 1959; Dow, 1959; Sinnott, 1959), Gilchrist (1972) points out that "most definitions require some evaluation of products" (p. 12). As Welsh (1975) observes, "there is very little we can know about a person, whether creative or not, unless he does something or says something"; "it is largely on the basis of what a person has done--what he has produced--that we decide his worth or value as an individual. This seems particularly true for the creative person" (p. 8).

Productivity variables have to do with product quantity or fluency. Most people (Guilford, Torrance and Wallach & Kogan are notable examples) define the creative person as fluent--one who generates many creative products. Consequently, the individual who comes up with one or two creative ideas in a lifetime is not apt to be considered as creative (if in fact he or she is considered creative at all) as the person who consistently produces such ideas. Judgements of fluency are not as clear-cut as they might seem, however. Consider individuals Y and Z as an example. Y has written 50 highly creative booklets on a diverse array of subjects of the genre decorating with houseplants, choosing the right fish for your acquarium, etc. while Z has developed one highly creative cure for cancer. It would seem that the more meaningful the creation, the less important fluency becomes.

Environment Variables

It is necessary to distinguish between the study of (1) environmental correlates of creativity, and (2) techniques for increasing creativity. The former identifies connections between environments and creativity, while the latter in effect designs "environmental supplements" to increase creativeness. Ideally the two pursuits are related, in that if, for example, environmental research reveals that parental flexibility is associated with creativity, facilitation research develops a method for increasing parental flexibility in environments where it does not occur "naturally." The environmental category as discussed here refers to those physical and social settings which seem to be related to creativeness.

Immediate--This category refers to the specific home, school, work or leisure situations individuals find themselves in. The significance of such environments for creativity is widely recognized (e.g., Freeman et al. 1968, Schuber, 1973). A great deal of attention has been accorded in particular to home and school climates relative to the development of creativeness in children. Bishop and Chace (1971), for example, found evidence of a relationship between a mother's concreteness/abstractness and attitudes/practices concerning the playfulness of her children's environment, variables which seem to be further related to the "potential creativity" of the children. The parent-child relationship and the home environment have been further examined in terms of their effect on the child's creativeness by Gowan (1971) and Siegelman (1973), while Torrance (1971) Lee and Williams (1972) and Peske (1976) have looked at both teacher and parental influences.

According to Harlow (1971), the child's reaction to his or her school environment takes one of three forms--survival, adjustment or encounter--the last being that which the classroom should encourage for optimum creativity. Studies focusing on the relationship between the school environment and creativity have been numerous (e.g., Mooney, 1967: Hoskin & Swick, 1972; Brophey & Choquette, 1973; Rookey & Reardon, 1973a; Ryckman, et al., 1976; Entwistle & Bennett, 1977) with open versus closed classroom environments of frequent interest (e.g., Owen et al., 1974; Ramey & Piper, 1974; Sullivan, 1974; Klein, 1975).

While not as popular as the study of creativity and the home or school environment, the importance of the work milieu has not been overlooked (e.g., Chalupa, 1972; Taylor, 1972). Crosby (1968), for instance, devotes a lengthy discussion to those aspects of the industrial organization that seem to impact on creativity. Creativity and leisure environment, on the other hand has received little research attention, probably due to the perception of leisure activities as "free choice" activities and hence as reflective rather than determinative of creativeness. One point that needs to be made, however, is that in fact familial or peer pressure often defines leisure time and in so doing causes it to effect more than be affected by, the individual's creativeness.

General-- Of relevance to this sub-category are Romaniuk and Romaniuk's (1980) "historical" and "contemporaneous" factors. As used here, the former have to do with "Is the time ripe?" sorts of questions. The two great peaks of creativity, according to Bronowski (1958),occurred between 600 and 300 B.C. in Greece and during the Rennaisance. He notes, moreover, that "the sciences and the arts have flourished together and they have been fixed together as sharply in place as in time" (p.60).

While historical factors refer to the general time and place within which a particular society is set (as well as factors affecting it, such as war), contemporaneous factors have to do with the characteristics of, or events taking place within, the society itself. It might be hypothesized, for example, that the discrepancy between the valuation accorded creativity and the degree of realized potential is explicable in terms of the attitude of the general public. It may be that while researchers are enthusiastic, lay people are ambivalent.

Thus the components involved in creativeness relate to a person undergoing a process which results in a product and takes place within an environment. In the next sections the creative person and product variables will be defined and discussed in terms of the sort of assessment and action they imply.

THE PERSON COMPONENT

The senior author undertook an extensive literature review in order to determine the personological and cognitive characteristic associated with creativity (Lingemann, 1982). Stringent criteria were used in deciding whether an association existed--(1) statistical significance at the .05 level in five "research studies" (i.e., correlational or experimental studies) or (2) significance (p .05) in three research studies and indications in two "research examinations" (i.e., reviews, summaries, surveys and theories), and (3) counter-indications in a proportionately small number of studies and/or examinations.

The fifty-five characteristics that fulfilled the above criteria determined the content of an instrument Lingemann designed to diagnostically assess creative person variables. As such, the instrument offers a score on each of eight subscales. The subscales definitions are useful for present purposes because (1) they afford a convenient way of presenting the basic characteristics associated with creativity, as part of the awareness stage, and (2) they offer an example of the type of assessment needed for meaningful action aimed at realizing creative potential. In what follows, each general trait will be described via the instrument subscales and illustrated by means of eminent creative people.

Sensation Seeking

Creative people are eager for knowledge and new experiences. As a result, they will often engage in difficult and challenging; even dangerous, tasks. Thomas Edison is a good example. At the age of six he burned down his father's barn, nearly killing himself, in order to learn more about fire (Perrone & Male, 1981).

Pearl Buck typified the inquiring mind. As a child, her queries of "why" were so frequent and insistent that her mother begged and even bribed her to refrain from asking a question for at least 15 minutes. (Perrone & Male, 1981).

Contemplative

These individuals think things over carefully, examing and re-examining. They are always attempting to understand—whether it be themselves, others, or some aspect of their environment. Pierre and Marie Curie, the discoverers of radium and polonium, personified these characteristics. As Marie Curie observed, "In our poor shed there reigned a great tranquility: sometimes, as we watched over some operation, we would walk up and down, talking about work in the present and in the future"... "We lived in our single preoccupation as if in a dream." (1959, p.179).

Adaptable

This characteristic encompasses open-mindedness and flexibility. Persons exhibiting it lack rigidity. They are open to many points of view and are able to shift and adapt to new, unexpected, or ambiguous situations. One of the Greek philosophers demonstrated his open-mindedness publically, advocating equal opportunity for the sexes more than two centuries before Plato, Pythagoras admitted both men and women to his school of several hundred people. (Durant, 1939).

Imaginative

What is being referred to here is a general ability to "play"--with concepts, with images, etc. This playful orientation manifests itself in new and original ideas, as well as a humorous approach to situations or tasks. Voltaire defines and exemplifies the latter:

> "What is called wit is sometimes a startling comparison, sometimes a delicate allusion; or it may be a play upon words-you use a word in one sense, knowing that your interlocutor will (at first) understand it in another. Or it

> is a sly way of bringing into juxtaposition ideas not usually considered in association. ...It is the art of finding a link between two dissimilars, or a difference between two similars. It is the art of saying half of what you mean and leaving the rest to the imagination. An I would tell you much more about it if I had more of it myself." (Durant & Durant, 1967, p.147).

Independent

This characteristic has to do with a strong sense of self. Creative people have confidence in themselves and what they stand for, and consequently are self-reliant and non-conforming. In 1730, quests of the Duc de Richelieu encouraged Voltaire to write the history of the-then uncanonized, but highly regarded, heroine of France--Joan of Arc. According to Durant and Durant,(1965) Voltaire felt that "...the supernatural elements in her legend seemed to invite a humorous treatment." (p. 361). Dared by Richelieu to express that opinion, Voltaire wrote the introduction to "...the rollicking La Pucelle (The Maid)" that very day.

Affective

The creative person is given to resond on an emotional level. Excitable and easily hurt, he or she also has a keen intuitive sense. In discussing "The Making of a Poem," Stephen Spender reveals the affective aspect of that process, and his nature:

> "Sometimes, when I lie in a state of half-waking, half sleeping, I am conscious of a stream of words which seem to pass through my mind, without their having a meaning, but they have a sound, a sound of passion, or a sound recalling poetry that I know. Again sometimes when I am writing, the music of the words I am trying to shape takes me far beyond the words, I am aware of a rhythm, a dance, a fury, which is as yet empty of words." (1970, p. 75).

Motivated

Creative people are active and intense. They do not give up easily in pursuit of their goals, continuing to strive even when difficulty or the possibility of failure is encountered. Michelangelo, for instance, was so driven to learn anatomy that he persuaded a hospital administrator to allow him to dissect cadavors, which he did to the point where "...his stomach revolted, and for a time he could hardly hold any food or drink." (Durant, 1953, p. 465). Spender (1970) acknowledged the "hard work" component of creativeness, observing that although he experienced a "sense of release and ectasy" in producing a successful poem, he dreaded writing one because it involved "a terrible journey, a painful effort of concentrating the imagination..." (p. 75).

Assertive

Individuals who are highly creative tend to stand up for themselves and their beliefs. This assertiveness makes them direct in their dealings with other people, and even aggressive. Mary Woolstonecraft, an authoress of the late 1700's, was assertive on behalf of women's rights. In "one of the ablest appeals ever made for women's liberation" (Durant & Durant, 1975, p. 364), A Vindication of the Rights of Women (1792), she argued that traditional "feminine" characteristics were attributable to inequalities in educational opportunities and by mens' success in convincing women, as a popular authoress put it, that "Your best, your sweetest empire is to please" (Durant & Durant, 1975, p. 365).

The creative person variables have been identified. They indicate the type of assessment needed, and indeed they were identified for the purpose of providing such as assessment. The Lingemann instrument was designed to provide a profile relevant to these characteristics so that action or facilitation methods could be tailored or matched to an individual or group's specific needs.

THE PRODUCT COMPONENT

Defining the creative product is unquestionably difficult. Carroll (1976) views the problem of definition as "timeless" and observes, along with Simon and Ward (1973), that the great need for a widely accepted definition of creativity has not been met. Hurt, Joseph, and Cook (1977) assert that "the inconsistency with which (innovativeness) is defined in the literature makes it difficult to grasp its essential attributes" (p. 58). "The term creativity, like the term 'intelligence'" say Anastasi and Schaffer (1971) "(should" be recognized as referring to a loosely defined broad and many-faceted concept" (p. 115). Far too broad, Hudson (1966) would add. Greene (1974) in fact concludes that the concept of creativity is "illusive and undefinable " However, either his opinion is unpopular or attempting the impossible is very popular, for a myraid of definitions have been offered. And, in fact, a closer look reveals that they are not as dissimilar as the above mentioned authors would have us believe.

When Morgan published 25 definitions of creativity in 1953, they all shared a criteria related to the development of something unique. Novelty apparently still remains the common thread holding creativity definitions together (Dudek, 1975; Pagano, 1979). As Petrosko (1978) observes, "virtually every writer on the subject associates creativity with the new, the unusual, the statistically rare" (p. 119). Opinions as to how this uniqueness is expressed vary, however. Duric (1978) for example, charges that creativity involves a combination or change into something new, Lasswell (1959) asserts that "creativity is the disposition to make and to recognize valuable innovations (p. 203), and May (1959) sees it as "the process of bringing something new into birth" (p. 57).

Novelty is not the only criteria upon which many researchers agree--what Rabil (1978) and Munk (1976) term "significant novelty," "the emergence of something new that is relevant, useful or important" (Rabil, p.6), seems to be considered nearly as essential. Various labels seem to get at the same general idea: "meaningful" (Simon & Ward, 1973), "valuable" (Lasswell, 1959; Elliott, 1964; Parnes, 1966), "corresponding to reality" (Barron, 1969) "adaptive to, or of, reality," "(serving) to solve a problem, fit a situation, or accomplish some recognizable goal" (Mackinnon, 1961, p. 1-1, 1-2). "socially adaptive" (Holland, 1964), "socially useful" (Ward, 1974), "tenable or useful or satisfying" (Stein, 1967) and "useful or practical" (Mari, 1976). Generally the "meaningfulness criteria" reflects a desire to eliminate "eccentricity" (Barron, 1969), i.e., the "simply bizarre or odd" (Jackson & Messick, 1965).

Related to meaningfulness, but seemingly important in its own right, is a criteria of quality. Although Gilchrist (1972) categorizes "value" and "quality" together, the four determining criteria she lists seem to refer to different aspects of the creative product. "Appropriateness for its purpose," "extent to which (it meets) an unfulfilled need...and the importance of the need...," and "its impact on human society or thought" all seem to describe value criteria. On the other hand, Barron's (1969) "aesthetic fit or elegance" or Poincare's (1970) "beauty and harmony" effecting "aesthetic sensitibility" or Jackson and Messick's (1967) "summarizing power" appear to reflect quality. Mari (1976) makes such a distinction, noting that creative products should be "correct" and "artistic" in addition to new and useful.

While the above review does not claim to be exhaustive, it is of sufficient length to indicate that the literature in definition is not quite the jumbled mess it might seem. There are trends, and they include a tendency to define the creative product in terms of novelty, meaningfulness and, occasionally, quality. Although it is true that decisions as to *what* constitutes novelty, meaningfulness and quality are inherently problemmatic (there is an entire literature related to the "criterion problem") it is important to recognize that there is agreement on a general level as to what constitutes "creativity."

The precise definitions of these creative product criteria depend upon the conceptual superstructure toward which they are applied. This superstructure has three facets and consequently generates the following questions about the product: (1) is it of a primary or secondary type? (2) is it being evaluated from an interval and/or external frame of reference, and (3) is it being evaluated in specific or general terms?

For illustrative purposes, all three facets will be placed in the context of invention and innovation. Some researchers feel that invention is creation and innovation is implimentation (Udell, 1976). Not withstanding this, the authors believe that innovation is an act of secondary creativity, i.e., the *modication* of an existing product process, or idea in some original fashion, whereas invention is a primary act of creativity and as such is the development of a totally new product, process or idea. The frame of reference can be either internal or external or some combination of both. In evaluating inventions and innovations, the internal frame of reference may be that of an individual or a particular company while the external point of view might be society at large. For example, assume meaningfulness is being defined in terms of the benefits a product offers versus the costs it extracts. From an internal frame of reference, a company may equivocate return on investment with meaningfulness. However, from an external perspective, meaningfulness might be measured by the amount of societal benefits that are generated, such as in cures for disease, or reductions of pollution and so forth.

The use of generality and specificity pertain to the degree, level or detail of precision desired in a product definition. Definitions in generality can, at best, only be used as conceptual indicators of a product's qualities, whereas definitions in specificity can be used to provide an accurate picture of a product's characteristics. Definitions involving a relatively high amount of generality require less effort and/or resources to construct however, they impart less descriptive information about the product they are meant to describe.

The criteria and the conceptual superstructure by which those criteria are defined together comprise the creative product variables (along with productivity) and as such indicate where assessment and action should be directed. An example of their application will be drawn from the assessment of a specific sort of creative product - the invention. While assessment of a "pure art" product would be exceedingly more difficult than that of a tangible invention, the latter nevertheless indicates the direction that the former needs to take.

The Wisconsin Innovation Service Center (WISC) is part of the School of Business at the University of Wisconsin-Whitwater. The commercial feasibility of ideas, inventions and innovations are assessed using a fourth generation version of the Preliminary Innovation Evaluation System (PIES-II; Udel & Baker, 1980). The PIES-II, originally developed at the now defunct Oregon Innovation Center, is a validated test instrument composed of thirty three criteria representing five different factor groups. These are presented in Table 1. Each criterion has five associated end statements which carry point values of one to five. Moreover, each of the 33 criteria as well as each of the five factor groups are weighted to reflect their relative importance. Three or more independent evaluators, based upon their experience, judgement, opinions, and the facts rate every new product using the PIES-II instrument. Since the PIES-II is used to evaluate both inventions and innovations, it obviously deals with both primary and secondary creativity. Moreover, this instrument is designed to view a product from both an internal and external perspective. As can be seen in Table 1, some of the factor groups, e.g., Societal Factors, take an external frame of reference, while other factor groups, such as Business Risk Factors, represent an internal point of view. Insofar as the notions of generality and specificity are concerned, the PIES-II instrument can work in either or both realms depening upon the amount of information that is provided during an evaluation.

Many of the sub-criteria within the competitive factor group are relevant to the criterion of novelty. Products that have competitive advantages, functional superiority, and patent or secrecy protection are unique to some extent. For example, patentability assumes that the invention or innovation in questions in indeed "new" from an external frame of reference as defined by the statute. Also, it is evident that products which have competitive advantages or functional superiority can be differentiated by these characteristics from their competitors. Although evaluative criteria representing meaningfulness can be found across different factor groups, the societal and business risk factor groups oppear to contain the greatest number of relevant criteria. Obvious choices from the societal factor group are safety, social benefits, and environmental impact. Minimumly, a product should be safe when used as intended, and have either no effect or a positive effect in terms of societal benefits and environmental impact. The most appropriate selections from the business risk factors are technical, functional, and production feasibility. The idea here is that products which are not theoretically sound, or theoretically sound, but will not work as desired or cannot be produced as designed, are for practical purposes less than meaningful. Other evaluation criteria from the Societal and Business Risk factor groups such as legality, investment cost, and profitability, could, under certain conditions, be subsumed by the notion of meaningfulness depending upon the evaluator's frame of reference for example, certain medical apparatus used in the treatment of rare diseases, if left unsubsidized, are not profitable and in a strict sense not meaningful for the firms that manufacture them, yet few people would suggest, that these products are not meaningful. Additionally, a similar argument could be made for or against including "market size" from the Demand Analysis group, and/or most of the items in the Competitive Factor group.

One item that does deserve inclusion into the meaningfulness concept is "need," one of the Market Acceptance factors, if for no other reason than commonsense. Commonsense in this instance indicates that from the external prospective, products which are entirely unneeded are unmeaningful as well.

The general criteria of quality, like novelty and meaningfulness, can be brought from theoretical discussion into practical application using the afore-mentioned factor groups. The evaluative criteria used to detail quality cut across factor groups. Some sub-criteria which can be used to define quality are, for example, appearance, function and durability from the Competitive Factor group. One can often judge the quality of a product by its aesthetic appeal and/or the attention paid to detail in its construction. Furthermore, functional superiority usually denotes superior quality, as does a superiority in durability.

The above examples have been presented in an attempt to demonstrate the feasibility of a practical application for the concepts of novelty, meaningfulness, and quality as set within the conceptual super structure of internal/external frame of reference, primary/secondary creativity and a general/specific definitional perspective. If these variables can be assessed, and the PIES II indicates that they can (at least with respect to inventions and innovations), then they can be used to indicate where a product exhibits deficiencies and hence where to aim one's efforts at attempting to make it, or future products, more creative.

SUMMARY

The importance of creativity is widely recognized in terms of its positive effects on the coping ability and self actualization of the individual, as well as the survival of his or her society, yet creative potential tends to go largely unrealized. Although this discrepancy may be due in part to a failure to translate theoretical commitment into practice, it was argued that the lack of a comprehensive, integrative approach to realizing creative potential is largely responsible. To be effective, this approach should reflect three stages—awareness of the components involved in creativeness, assessment of those components, and action aimed at strengthening weaknesses in the appropriate component areas. The four major components--person, process, product and environment--were outlined. Person and product were discussed in terms of their defining variables--Sensation Seeking/Contemplative/Adaptable/Imaginative/Independent/Emotional/Motivated/Assertive and Novelty/Meaningfulness/Quality/Frame of Reference/Primary-Secondary Status/Generality-Specificity, respectively. It was proposed that identification of these variables, and hence completion of the awareness stage with respect to the Person and Product components of creativeness, was a prerequisite to the meaningful assessment, as offered by the Lingemann, Udell and Baker instruments. Moreover, this type of assessment, it was further argued, is essential to efficient and effective action aimed at realizing creative potential.

TABLE 1

PIES-II FACTOR GROUPS AND EVALUATIVE CRITERIA (UDELL & BAKER 1980)

SOCIETAL FACTORS

1) Legality
2) Safety
3) Environmental Impact
4) Societal Impact

BUSINESS RISK FACTORS

5) Functional Feasibility
6) Production Feasibility
7) Stage of Development
8) Investment Costs
9) Payback Period
10) Profitability
11) Marketing Research
12) Research and Development

DEMAND ANALYSIS FACTORS

13) Potential Market
14) Potential Sales
15) Trend of Demand
16) Stability of Demand
17) Product Life Cycle
18) Product Line Potential

MARKET ACCEPTANCE FACTORS

19) Compatibility

20) Learning

21) Need

22) Dependence

23) Visibility

24) Promotion

25) Distribution

26) Service

COMPETITIVE FACTORS

27) Appearance

28) Function

29) Durability

30) Price

31) Existing Competition

32) New Competition

33) Protection/Secrecy

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UNDERSTANDING AND EDUCATING THE RIGHT HEMISPHERE

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INTRODUCTION

Education. A word that suggests transformation of knowledge. All too often education, or at least formal education, stresses the acquisition of data or the learning of specific educational processes. Formal education frequently fails to account for persons being educated and consequently treats individuals more as learning machines than as complex organisms capable of dealing with stimuli in both expected and creative ways.

Education has emphasized development of conscious processes and has, through lack of attention, ignored the significance of the subconscious in learning. "Conscious" processes are usually viewed as those involving logical, analytical, linear manipulation of information. "Subconscious" processes, by contrast, are considered to be those which are need motivated and operate in a holistic fashion. Whereas conscious processes are inductive, the subconscious appears to operate deductively.

Traditionally, aspects of learning associated with the three R's have been considered under the "conscious" domain. An expansion of these three includes subjects like sciences, mathematics, languages, and history. Other technical offerings are found in schools, courses like auto mechanics, typing, accounting, among others. A third category includes courses like art, music, band and physical education. This third category is often viewed as an "educational frill." Of the three categories, however, the last seems to have the greatest potential for developing a student's subconscious. Despite this potential when educational program cuts are suggested it is this category which is looked at first. This could be a serious mistake. Education has a responsibility to develop "total" individuals. Both conscious and subconscious potential must be considered if "total" development is to be achieved.

A second way of viewing the dichotomy between conscious and subconscious elements is surfacing in research, a way that appears to offer educators a useful perspective. Recent research has indicated that the brain is comprised of two primary components, the left and right hemispheres, which have overlapping, yet distinct functions. The left hemisphere of the brain controls the right side of the body and specializes in logical-analytical thought and verbalization. Reading, writing, language, and mathematics represent left hemispheric linear processes. The right hemisphere, by contrast, controls the left side of the body and primarily controls spatial perception, perceptual insight, tactile sensation, and visualization. Intuitive, metaphoric and inventive capacities, divergent thought and some components of music and art ability are hypothesized functions of the right hemisphere.

Two Modes of Consciousness*

LEFT HEMISPHERE	RIGHT HEMISPHERE
Intellectual	Sensous
Time, History	Eternity, Timeless
Active	Receptive
Explicit	Tacit
Analytic	Gestalt
Propositional	Appositional
Lineal	Nonlineal
Sequential	Simultaneous
Focused	Diffuse
Verbal	Spatial
Causal	Acausal
Argument	Experience
Intellectual	Intuitive

*A partial list taken from Ornstein (1972), The Psychology of Consciousness, p. 67.

This description of hemispheric functioning is consistent with the dichotomy between conscious and subconscious processes described earlier. Evidently conscious processes are left hemispheric whereas subconscious processes are primarily located in the right hemisphere.

It has been suggested that art, music and physical education can make significant contributions to the development of the subconscious. We believe this to be true. In addition, however, subconscious processes can be taught through the systematic use of exercises specifically designed to use right hemispheric processing skills. The purpose of this paper is to discuss several skill areas which can be useful in promoting right hemisphere/subconscious processes. Five major topical areas will be discussed: Visualization, Concentration, Memory, Creativity, and Development of Personal Well Being. These topical areas build naturally upon one another. Visualization skills are seen as a foundation for developing concentration and memory skills and these three are seen as foundational for further development of creativity and personal well being.

VISUALIZATION

One of the primary ways of tapping our subconscious potential is through visualization. When we close our eyes brain activity does not stop. We experience a myriad of thoughts, ideas and images sometimes connected, sometimes disjointed and fleeting. The common experience of daydreaming usually contains visual images of how we would like things to be, memories of past events or how situations might have been. Such flights of fantasy are common experiences. In our culture, however, daydreaming is sometimes considered an escape from reality. While visual fantasy is common there is little recognition of how such an ability can be used productively for enhancing problem solving, learning, creativity or personal growth. The power of visualization as a learning and self-programming tool can be experienced directly when one pictures biting into a juicy lemon. When we even think about doing such a thing our mouths begin to salivate and pucker, and we can usually feel our glands bulge in anticipation or response to the sour taste. All of these physical responses result from our visualization. This connection between images and physiological responses is equally true for emotions, needs and ideas. When we let our thoughts dwell on a previous sad experience and relive it through our mental pictures we can feel ourselves become sad and/or depressed again. Visualization, then, has powerful effects upon us and can be used purposefully for self-control, enhancing performance, learning new behaviors and self-development.

CONCENTRATION

The full utilization of potential depends, among other things, upon one's ability to focus mental and emotional energies. Concentration skills enhance our ability to focus awareness and attention, the energizing system of our consciousness. We have all experienced the dire consequences of letting our attention wander. If we let our attention wander while riding a bicycle we may hit a hole and fall. We have all used the excuse, "I just can't concentrate today," to put off an assignment or task we find hard or unpleasant. Concentrating attention and awareness is an important skill for learning and creativity.

The Latin root of the word "concentration" means "one-pointedness." The "one" pointed focusing of our attention increases the potential effectiveness, power and efficiency of our mind and emotions. There are two primary sources of problems when our concentration falters. There are environmental stimuli, e.g., music, loud noises, busy activities, conflicting demands, uncomfortable furniture, etc. These sorts of distractions can make concentration difficult but not impossible. As individuals begin to practice concentration skills external distractors should be kept to a minimum. The second source of distractions is our own mind. Our mind is a constant activity center. Even when we are not focusing our attention on something, our minds seem to generate constant thoughts, images and/or feelings. We continuously talk to ourselves about things that have happened, might happen, we wish to happen or about what is happening as we are experiencing. This constant internal "chatter" is a primary source of distraction. Overcoming internal "chatter", focusing attention on a single task, and overcoming distractions can be accomplished if one systematically applies visualization and/or other mind relaxing right hemispheric procedures.

MEMORY

Having a good memory is essential in learning. The information explosion has increased the complexity and breadth of knowledge necessary for educational advancement. Each generation increases the volume of knowledge giving succeeding generations more to learn and remember. For example, when the authors were in high school our American history textbooks ended with World War II. Today the history books present the Korean Conflict, the development of People's Republic of China and Israel, moon landings, etc., as historical facts necessary to complete an understanding of our nation's and the world's development.

A second historical factor affecting the development of good memories was the advent of the printing press. Prior to the printed word knowledge was passed down accurately from parents to children across multiple generations through memory. Modern man has become lazy in the use of memory skills because there is less need to remember. Materials can be "looked up" in ready references.

This is not necessarily bad. However, the lack of memory development can effect formal learning as well as social interaction. As with concentration memory can be increased through the systematic use of visualization, visualization which uses the power of the mind to remember images that are unusual and/or exaggerated. For an in depth discussion of increasing memory through visualization the reader is referred to Lorrayne and Lucas (1974) and Luria (1968).

CREATIVITY

Being creative isn't completely rational. It isn't totally irrational either. Being creative seems to incorporate both processes. Rational processes are those most usually associated with the left hemisphere while irrational/intuitive processes are associated with the right hemisphere. When an individual learns to use both processes creativity is likely to increase.

Writers in the area of creativity frequently allude to a sequential process which the creative act seems to follow. A close inspection of this sequence reveals that conscious rational processes are followed as well as subconscious irrational processes.
Goal Establishment: Establishing goals is usually a conscious rational process. An individual perceives a problem and sets out to find a solution. Sometimes this may be a subconscious process, one in which a person feels uneasy about something or has a feeling that things aren't right. Both situations provide the person with the

motivation for seeking a solution.

Preparation: Creativity doesn't take place without information. Sometimes the preparation takes place before the goal setting. This preparation can be either a conscious process of seeking and acquiring information one in which the person allows the subconscious to sort and recast the information which has been acquired and stored in the subconscious.

Incubation: Incubation is a process which is totally irrational and accomplished through the subconscious. The subconscious functions holistically. That is, the subconscious process seems to function by taking all information relevant to the perceived goal, analyzing information through formation of a gestalt and providing answers pictorially or symbolically.

Illumination: Illumination is the "Aha!" experience which follows on the heels of incubation. It is frequently characterized in cartoons by a light bulb above the character's head. It is that experience which frequently happens in a flash of insight, usually occuring at a time when the individual is thinking about an unrelated topic.

Validation: Validation is the conscious, rational process which translates symbolically produced information from the subconscious. Validation often entails "testing" the idea in "harsh reality" to see if it works or is viable. This is a very conscious, rational process.

Creativity, then, is a special process which utilizes the functions of both right and left hemispheres (rational and intuitive/and conscious and subconscious processes.

PERSONAL WELL BEING

Thinking about oneself in a positive manner is healthy and potentially productive. Despite this seemingly obvious fact, many individuals proceed through life with negative pictures of themselves, with apparent low self-esteem and, consequently, with underused personal potential. To alter the pattern of negative thinking is not easy. However, the use of visualization to both rehearse new ways of behaving or to diffuse the power of past negative experiences is a very powerful tool for personal growth and well being. The development of skills to visualize, concentrate, remember and be more creative can all be applied for the individual's personal growth and development.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper has been to introduce five broad areas that are influenced by the mysterious right hemisphere or our subconscious mind. Each of the topics - visualization, concentration, memory, creativity and personal well being - can be enhanced through systematic use of drills and exercises aimed at developing right hemispheric skills. Education is at a crossroads. We can continue to emphasize the obvious strengths of the left hemisphere, i.e., orderliness, logical analysis, deductive reasoning, etc. and minimize the power of the right hemisphere, i.e., holistic processing, image analysis, metaphoric synthesis, etc. or we can begin to focus educational processes on both. Our own creativity will best be applied when we can utilize the processes/skills of one hemisphere to enhance those of the other, e.g., how can we use visualization to help students learn math or how can we use the discipline of scientific thought to enhance the beauty of a musical piece or add beauty to an art project. Adequate answers to these questions will come when we learn to use our own right, not just our left hemisphere.

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SENSITIZING OURSELVES TO THE UNIQUE CONCERNS OF THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT GIFTED CHILD

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PREFACE

We have written this paper with the intention of focusing on the affective aspects of being both culturally different and gifted and how to facilitate the learning of culturally different gifted children. We have initiated our own research (which we will detail later) and the literature from the field continues to present ideas, models and methods to assist all who share in the educative process. We present many of these here. However, we have chosen to focus on how it feels to be culturally different and gifted. We focus on how those feelings help and hinder the teaching, the learning and the presentation of self for students and teachers in and outside the classroom.

Affective education has become fashionable of late and we concur with the realization that students (and teachers) learn with their whole being — not only cognitively. We endorse this concept, but our goal in this paper is broader. We discuss ways of engaging the emotions of the culturally different gifted child. We further endeavor to describe the feelings and responses which we believe the culturally different gifted child already brings with him or with her to the school, to the classroom. We have two goals: one, we hope to move the process of learning to appreciate cultural diversity in our schools, and, two, we want to alleviate the tragic waste of talented students from various cultures whose special gifts are not recognized and cultivated by the traditional school system which has over-learned the task of treating every student equally.

INTRODUCTION

If you have ever traveled in a foreign country, you know this feeling: (We are indebted to Perrone, Aleman & Karshner, [1979] for this analogy): When you arrive in the new country, you are aware that you don't understand the language you hear and read; that people are behaving in subtly unfamiliar ways; that you feel strange and don't know what is expected of you. You look for something familiar so that you can get your bearings, so that you know how to act, what to do next. You feel anxious. This is, of course, culture shock. The experience of culture shock is a part of travel to another culture. It is not always pleasant, but it is usually transitory, and you are soon on your way home again.

Think of the child who is going to school for the first time. The people at the school are unfamiliar; people are behaving differently; the child doesn't have a clear idea what is expected of him or her. Add to the dimension of newness the fact that the child is culturally different than the majority of students, and probably, than the teacher. The school is a product of the majority culture. Perhaps nothing in school is familiar to the child, not even the language. This is another kind of culture shock. The person travelling to the foreign land is there by choice. The child is there by force of law. Many of the experiences are the same but not the long-term effects.

What effect does this school culture shock have on the culturally different child? We propose several factors contributing to immediate and long-term negative feelings. First, the child is likely to be valued, nurtured, guided and rewarded at home. However, frequently at school, despite teacher efforts, the child feels and is alien to the setting. Second, there is an aspect of educational cultural shock which people of good conscience like to ignore. Despite efforts to change and eliminate it, institutional racism still exists in our society. We can say, "I'm not racist." And indeed, we may not think we are. But how we behave and what we experience can be very subtle. Both teachers and students are vulnerable to the feelings we will describe.

Beginning with the desire of every human to feel safe, if cultural minorities perceive that teachers look different or behave differently than they are accustomed to, they may feel threatened at a very basic level. This anxiety reflects the culture shock which we have already discussed.

Teachers may also experience anxiety and feel threatened in the presence of people from different cultures. However, an important layer of adult socialization in our culture says that it is not permissible for adults to feel afraid. We say to ourselves that there is nothing to fear. Thus, the fear is effectively denied. Or, perhaps the fear exists at an unconscious level and we're not aware it is there at all. Therefore, what happens is that we avoid acknowledging the differences between us and members of other cultures. We avoid recognizing the differences so that we don't have to acknowledge those differences. Therefore, we need not acknowledge the anxiety and engage in a dialogue which would reduce the anxiety. Without acknowledgment of the differences that the child clearly feels, the child feels cut off from his own reality. This is how the pattern is created for eventual segregation of the culturally different.

It is important to note that this interaction process occurs between cultural groups in all pluralistic societies. It is not productive to feel guilty about it. We need to take action to change the engaging process for the culturally different child. We have created a scenario wherein two or more alien clutures meet in the school. What if, in addition, there are children in this group who are exceptionally bright, talented, creative children — gifted children. What about the culturally different gifted child?

PART I

In the school setting, culturally different gifted children are required to accomplish the very delicate feat of balancing three important needs in their lives:

Need No. 1: Gifted children feel different from their peers anyway, but if they are from a culture which does not value intellectual development as evidenced by scholastic achievement, peer and parental pressure may be a particulary strong deterrent to developing their giftedness via the school curriculum. All children, including gifted children, want to feel a part of the group and a part of their family. On the one hand, peer and parental rejection can cause a loss of the sense of belongingness. On the other hand, this rejection can act as a leveling device to keep minority students from high aspiration or scholastic achievement.

Need No. 2: Because of the emphasis on cultural assimilation in our majority culture, culturally different gifted children feel strong pressure to give up all or part of their native culture, which creates confusion, stress and identity crises.

Need No. 3: Gifted children from all cultures need to spend time with each other because they need the interactive stimulation, and because they gain self confidence in learning that others think as they do. This experience is important because if offsets the negative social pressure which comes from nongifted peers and insensitive teachers.

Even if culturally different gifted children are aware of their abilities and are able to find the balance between peers, parents, their culture and their special gifts, they may lack the motivation to develop the gifts because they feel there is no place for them in the dominant school culture. Later we will suggest some ways that the culturally different gifted child can be stimulated to develop aspirations which are personally meaningful and acceptable to both the minority and majority clutures.

Before we address concerns regarding the children themselves, we must again examine the sociocultural setting. Those attending this symposium are likely to be most aware that gifted children have special learning needs. As we know, all persons do not share this awareness. It is clear, in fact, that there is a great paradoxical myth abroad in our culture, and, therefore, in our schools. Like all paradoxes, it has opposing parts. One part says that the individual person and his or her differences are very important and must be acknowledged. The other part says that in this country, every person has the same chances, and is treated just like every other person. How can we honor individual differences and also give every person the same treatment? It's a paradox and yet it persists. Gifted children are serious victims of this paradox. Many gifted children are frustrated and/or pushed out of school because of the "cannonball" theory of giftedness (Gallagher, 1974). The cannonball theory says that if you are gifted, you can't be stopped -- nothing can hold you back. Therefore, justification is created for not giving the gifted child special assistance. This misconception has tragic results.

In light of culture shock, alienation, the balancing act and paradoxes, what happens to the culturally different gifted child? This child receives what we might call a "double negative whammy." Neither his or her special gifts nor his or her cultural differences are acknowledged. Statistics tell us that 10% of the 7.5 million dropouts in this decade will have IQ scores in the top 25% of the population. A disproportionate number of these talented dropouts will be culturally different than the majority (Gallagher, 1974).

In order to avoid this educational tragedy and human waste, we must know:

1. What are the child's cultural values ... what does his or her culture perceive as personal gifts worthy of developing?
2. In light of these cultural values, how can educators identify the culturally different gifted child?
3. What behavioral issues do educators need to be aware of when working with the culturally different gifted child?
4. What classroom sruvival skills will make it possible for the culturally different child to function effectively in a dominant culture classroom?
5. How can we teach culturally different gifted children most effectively?

It is important for us to consider certain aspects of the particular cultures which educators might face in school in order to appreciate how these aspects affect children's school performance, and how they might reflect which children will be considered gifted in particular cultures. First, it is clear that there are a few talents which will appear to a greater or lesser degree in talented students from any culture. These are:

1. The ability to manipulate meaningfully, some symbol held valuable in the culture. For example, in the American Black culture, there is "dealing the dozens." "Dealing the dozens" and "signifying" are the names given to the activities of making up complex rhymes about one another's mothers, lives and activities. "Mosca" or "Cabula" is a similar verbal activity of Mexican children.
2. The ability to think logically, given appropriate data.
3. The ability to use stored knowledge to solve practical problems.
4. The ability to reason by analogy.
5. The ability to extend or extrapolate knowledge to new situations and make unique applications.

In presenting this list, we are NOT referring to the ability to perform well on standardized tests. We are describing basic abilities which will be evidenced to a degree in all talented persons. This is important to remember because the purely objective, paper-and-pencil evaluation of giftedness is damaging to cultures which don't value analytical and problem solving skills and the verbal skills which are tested in school.

At GIFTS, we have realized the need for teachers to know something of all the cultures from which their students come. In 1978, GIFTS held a series of formal meetings on the Madison campus, to which persons from each cultural group were invited to discuss values in their cultues which impinge on the student in the school setting. Much valuable information for our research came out of these meetings. In addition, during this past year, we have organized informal meetings of graduate students. These graduate students were also from these four cultures, and described for us the process of their journey through school, providing insights into their cultural values as they related to their school experience.

In this paper, we will consider the Spanish speaking people who are Puerto Rican, the Spanish speaking people who are Mexican or Chicano, the American Black, and the American Indian. It is not appropriate to attempt an analysis of each cultural group's values in the context of this paper. Instead, we will outline a series of phenomena which have been observed by our sources from each culture. We will then suggest what behaviors or attitudes might be shown by children from these cultures in the school setting. This material can be considered a beginning point for teachers who will want to continue their own research.

Spanish speaking Puerto Rican people:

Observation 1: The general orientation of the educational process in Puerto Rico is vocational. That is, success means work, usefulness, production, but not necessarily working in the professions.

Result: Puerto Rican students in the U.S. feel out of sync with the stated goals here in the U.S., which often center around preparing for the professions.

Observation 2: Respect and fear of God is a basic cultural value.

Result: There is a respectful reservation toward the unknown which may be seen as a fear of the unknown. There may be dependency on religiosity in a formal way, or in spiritual practices.

Observation 3: Respect of elders is a significant cultural value. Thus, children are told not to interrupt elders and avoid meddling in conversations of adults. For Puerto Ricans, the mark of a well educated person is respectful and proper behavior rather than formal schooling.

Result: Children tend to lower heads when adults address them directly. This may look like obstinance or defiance. There is a perceived lack of assertiveness by students which comes out of respect for authority.

Observation 4: Puerto Ricans put their families first. Therefore, competition in the family or with peers is diminished by the responsibility toward siblings. There are clear sex role responsibilities. The parents' counsel is sought first in resolving problems, deciding career, establishing goals.

Result: There are different moral expectations of males and females. The culture expects early marriages of long duration. There will be observation of all holidays with the family. Children will care for parents and siblings when necessary (i.e., illness) regardless of school or job commitments.

Observation 5: Music is crucial to Puerto Rican culture. It is uppermost as a form of cultural expression and reality.

Result: Songs and singing are an important creative variable for all ages. If there are no songs or singing or music in school, this variable may never appear for observation.

Observation 6: Language syntax in English or Spanish is uniquely adapted. That is, it is very colloquial, and part of people's identity.

Result: Unique language patterns and mixtures of Spanish and English may be used by children. Teachers may find these language patterns confusing and, therefore, discourage their use.

However, teachers should be aware that facility of verbal expression may be considered evidence of creativity.

Observation 7: Emotiveness and emotionality are cultural values which underly all other Puerto Rican values.

Result: Children exhibit extreme sensitivity to emotional and stimulating situations. This could be interpreted as emotional instability by a foreign culture which may view emotion as weakness.

Spanish speaking Mexican or Chicano people:

There are some values of Puerto Rican culture which are also values of the Mexican/Chicano culture. Of these previous values, respect and fear of God, putting families first, specific sex role expectations, music and dance, and language as a part of identify fall into this category. In addition, we can make the following observations which apply to the Spanish speaking Mexican or Chicano people:

Observation 1: Mexicans place a high cultural value or cooperativeness. There is less individualism. The cultural value is to place the needs of others before one's own, and to work together without attempting to stand out.

Result: The traditional American values of competition and individualism place Mexican children in a double bind with regard to their own culture. The values of the two cultures are antithetical regarding these issues. There is no preparation of children for dealing with competition. Their training is generally not to push themselves, not to "stand out."

Observation 2: It is considered very important to respect elders, law and authority. There is a high value placed on courtesy and non-assertiveness.

Result: Children are very vulnerable to manipulation. They may appear dull and docile, which doesn't fit the dominant culture.

American Indian:

The American Indian student may be a member of any one of hundreds of tribes which exist across the United States. It is a mistake to assume that Indian cultural values are the same for all tribes. There do seem, however, to be some very general, underlying values which hold for most tribal groups.

Observation 1: The traditional extended family includes the conjugal, the immediate relatives and the rest of the tribe. This inclusion provides continuity for development of identity and self-perception, or the means by which children return to the "trunk of the tree." Thus the extended family and even the tribe is very important to every child.

Result: These ideas are antithetical to the American ideal of independence and individualism. It is difficult to identify a specific set of behaviors which go with this observation. However, it probably manifests itself in the behaviors around attitudes toward authority. That is, American Indian people may consider their tribe and family rules more significant for their behavior than the laws of this country.

Observation 2: The "trunk of the tree" described is the original tree of the family of man and all creation. Grandparents are roots, parents trunk, children are branches and fruit. Thus there is a continuity in the ways and cultural traditions of the people.

Result: Extending the tree metaphor, American society has been a blight to this tree, for the American Indian schools which separated children from their families have been "pesticides" which cut nourishment from the roots of the tree. Therefore, American Indian people have a reservoir of anger toward American society at large which is immense. This anger manifests itself often in passive resistance to the school.

Observation 3: Again, the purpose of life is to learn and grow wise in traditional Indian culture.

Result: The purpose of life in broader American culture is to be successful, possess things, compete, have confidence, make money, take care of self. Traditional Indian values are the opposite of these values. Indian children's behavior will reflect this.

Observation 4: There is high value on collective decision making in most Indian tribes. It is important to discuss until everyone has voiced an opinion and there is no more discussion.

Result: This desire for consensus clashes with the broad American cultural value of having a chairperson, secretary, treasurer power hierarchy; Robert's Rules of Order, majority rule, and structure and control of time.

Observation 5: Indian culture teaches that formal education does not equal intelligence. The purpose of life according to the Indian way is to learn and grow wise.

Result: Teachers of the American Indian student may believe the student is accountable to the teacher. The Indian may assume he or she is accountable to self as human and to the extended family and the tribe. Indian students may believe that the experiences which will help them grow wise are different than the school prescribes. In terms of the Indian culture, they are right. To the school, they are wrong.

American Black:

The American Black culture is a special kind of challenge for the majority to understand. Blacks in a classroom can represent all the strata of American society. Many Blacks are going to be very similar in attitude and background to the culture of the majority. However, there are aspects of themselves which many Blacks may show each other that the teacher will not understand. For example, there is the use of Black English. Certain Blacks may choose to use their Black English in a situation-specific manner with friends or in social situations with other Blacks, even though they speak a standard English in general. Other Blacks may use their Black English in all situations by choice, even though they understand standard English very well.

The resident of the Black ghetto may use Black English exclusively. If a teacher wants to function effectively with Black adolescents, he or she needs some basic skills. Andrew Darton, Jr., has written movingly about this process of skill acquisition. The most basic skill, says Darton, centers around a short and simple word, "rap." The teacher in a ghetto school must be ready to rap. Otherwise, he or she "might as well hang a sign on the door on which is printed another word. That word is OUT." According to Darton, "rap" refers to a genuine kind of communication which is easy and unforced that implies a degree of trust between those who are talking so that no one has to hide or pretend or set up artificial barriers of judgment. Says Darton, "rapping involves a kind of understanding and is pleasant and easy, but that doesn't mean that it is only a matter of casual exchanges." In fact, says Darton, a real "rap" comes close to what the counselor means by empathy. Following is an extensive quote from Darton, describing part of the process of learning to "rap."

> The first step in learning to rap is becoming familiar with the language that most ghetto residents use.
>
> Learning the dialect is partly a matter of vocabulary. However, acquiring the vocabulary is not as difficult as it might seem, since any number of ghetto expressions have crept or banged their way into the language most Americans use. "Where it's at," "square"-this list is long and is rapidly becoming longer. In fact, if you taped the conversation of certain middle-class college students, you might find that some listeners would identify the tape as coming from the inner city. Even the intonation might be a fairly accurate replica. "Shee-ee-it" may be just as drawn out on a shaded campus where statues of founders stare across the lawns as in the dark alley where statues are not required.
>
> But knowing the meaning of words will not in itself make the teacher ready to rap. The counselor must be aware of the context in which words are used and the gestures and intonations that may overshadow the words themselves. Especially, he or she must become aware of the kind of life the words and sounds actually represent.
>
> Take the word "mother" with its usual appendage. If the expression is used with tones and gestures of anger, it can indicate deep hostility. Or it can be used casually, as a way of referring to another individual. It can even be used to express a kind of affection, as when someone says softly, "You mother, you," with a grin and a slap on the back. A plump teacher once entered a ghetto school and was greeted from the end of the hall with a shout: "Who dat fat mother?" The teacher realized that no insult was insluted; the expression was being used as casually as "guy" might have been used in another setting. He waved at the group and said, "Hello, men," realizing that if he had said "boys," this would have been regarded as a far worse insult than "mother."
>
> As the teacher gets ready to rap, he or she will begin to realize some of the connotations of "mother" in the ghetto. The teacher might ask the question: Why is there no equivalent expression for "father"? Given the human anatomy, there could easily be one. As the teacher begins to consider questions such as this, he or she will probably become aware of the mirror-like relationship between language and the life it represents. The mother plays a central role in family life in the ghetto; an insult involving one's mother may be the deepest insult of all.
>
> (Darton, 1980, p.5)

Darton goes on to describe differences in grammatical structure between Black English and standard English. For example, Black English is a kind of shorthand ("he come," "she busted") which may reflect the tensions of life in the street, or the concern with present time and what is happening now or, perhaps, the loss of purpose experienced by many who live "on the street." Darton suggests that the precise quality of standard English is probably considered unnecessary by "someone whose life is bounded by a few street corners and the people who pass by"(Darton, 1980, p.5).

With the variety of cultural traits which may be presented in culturally different gifted children, it is easy to understand why we may have difficulty identifying them. It is clear also that the common definition of "gifted," that is, high performance on an IQ test and in formal academics is totally inadequate. Many people in gifted education now know that this definition effectively eliminates many of the most talented children whether they be from minority cultures or the majority culture. In fact, test scores have proven to be a limited predictor of academic success as well. For all children, the tests are built on the assumption that the test performance reflects the student's best performance. It has been suggested that there is no such thing as a culturally different gifted child giving a "best performance" because he or she will simply get through the testing business and won't know what the whole thing is about (Gallagher, 1974).

Therefore, we need different means of identifying the culturally different gifted child.

Before we can identify giftedness, we need a definition. What is giftedness anyway? The expanded definition of giftedness from our federal legislation includes general intellectual ability, visual and performing arts talent, and psychomotor ability. This definition encourages looking at multidimensions of talent and gifts rather than a strictly cognitive dimension.

At this point, it is important to note the importance of identifying gifted minority children as early as possible, during the kindergarten year ideally. These gifted small children are obvious and observable to all who really try to observe them. Yet one or two years later, they become invisible. Between kindergarten and first grade, enthusiasm may become apathy, and by fifth or sixth grade, apathy has become hostility, and it may be too late to reach the child. That is, for all of the reasons we have discussed, the sense of isolation, the feeling of being different, the conflicting loyalties between one's cultural values by heritage and the values of the larger culture; because of these factors, the child may withdraw and be more difficult to reach.

Research continues which attempts to assess talent in culturally different children. If you plan to invest in a testing program, some interesting assessments are now available. In a recent article, Chambers and Barron (1980), discuss extensive work with Chicano populations in California. They suggest that certain personal traits have a strong correlation with high level contributions in the arts and sciences as evidenced by looking at creative adults achieving at high creative levels and contributing significantly to the culture. These characteristics are cognitive flexibility, introversion, perceptual openness, strong initiative and drive, strong ego control, dominance, persistence, aesthetics, sensitivity, preference for complexity and a striving for excellence. Chambers and Barron suggest that these traits can be identified substantially with non-verbal measures. Chambers and Barron suggest the following:

1. IPAT Culture Fair IQ Test (Cattell 1958). This is a nonverbal measure of convergent thinking abilities.
2. Wallace Kogan Tests of Creativity (1956). This test examines divergent thinking and is given without time limits.
3. The Barron Symbol Equivalence Test (Barron 1976, a, b,) This test measures ability to perceive symbolic equivalence.

Chambers and Barron report that these three tests do seem to show differential effects as early as third grade on the population of children tested.

Chambers and Barron mention two other assessments which did not differentiate with small children because they seem to assess abilities which develop more slowly over the life span. These are:

1. Barron-Welsh Art Scale (1963). This test measures aesthetic sensitivity, which is a quality that appears to stabilize as the child gets older.

2. The Personal Adjective Checklist. This assessment looks at self-concept which has been found to be highly correlated with high level creativity in adults. This type of capacity for self-description apparently develops or stabilizes later in life, and is difficult to assess in elementary children with measures of this type.

It is important to note for culturally different children and for all gifted, that research shows that IQ's above the upper 15% do not contribute meaningfully to high level creative achievement. Therefore, the most important capacities to assess are motivational and personality traits.

Joyce Gay from the University of Georgia has proposed a procedure for the identification of gifted black children (Bruch, Curry, 1978). Gay suggests that we search first for those who perform at least at an average or better level for their age, but who have been handicapped by such variables as: 1. poor school attendance, 2. school mobility, and transiency, 3. language difficulty in standard English, 4. low SES and/or welfare status, 5. apparent neglect, i.e. nutritional, clothing, etc. Her point is that the student must be bright to perform at an average level despite such difficulties. Thus, what appears to be an average student might require another look. Ms. Gay also suggests some comparative characteristics of giftedness in Black children which we will list here:

Comparative Characteristics of Giftedness in Black children:

1. Keen observation -- Picks up more quickly on racist attitudes and practices; may feel alienated by school at an early age;
2. Interest and ability in perceiving relationships -- Seeks structure and organization in required tasks; may be slow to motivate in some abstract activities;
3. Verbal proficiency, large vocabulary, facility of expression -- Many Black children have large vocabularies inappropriate for school setting; thinking in Black English may hinder the facility of expression in standard English;
4. Breadth of information -- Difficult to determine many areas of experiential knowledge for Black children;
5. Questioning, curious, skeptical -- Though some ask too many "wrong" questions, some may have been conditioned to suppress questioning behavior;
6. Critical, evaluative, possessing good judgment -- Explores (in perception of relationships) better or wiser choices; reads behavioral implications;

7. Creative, inventive, original -- Makes up games and activites; expresses original ideas in other ways;

8. Power of concentration, long attention span -- May find some have extremely strong concentration due to persistent noise in environment; may also express displeasure at having to stop an activity;

9. Independence -- Need for less supervision especially pronounced in Black gifted;

10. Diversity of interests and abilities -- Frequently has artistic, musical, creative writing, psychomotor or leadership talent in addition to global intellectual ability, may neglect school work due to other interests;

11. Academic facility and strength -- Good at basic school tasks; may not have expected achievement due to inferior schooling.

(Gay, in Bruch, Curry, 1978)

Garcia (Perrone et al, 1978) suggests a means of identifying GT Chicano children. He found that GT Chicano children were particularly sensitive to the subtle differences between English and Spanish and would create new words from a combination of English and Spanish when other words would not "do."

Ramirez (Perrone, et al, 1978) suggests several qualities which may help identify gifted and talented Mexican children. First, he warns us not to dismiss all delinquent behavior as simply destructive. He says that "troublemakers" need to be looked at carefully because their assertiveness could be frustrated creative talent which will become anti-social if it is not focused. Ramirez reminds us again that a student who asks many questions may be exhibiting potential talent. One final suggestion is that music and dance is often a strong indicator of talent in small Chicano children. They will indicate this by their singing, recall of songs and dances, and by their self confidence in performing the songs and dances.

One very significant issue to consider is that minority group status often goes hand in hand with los SES (Yando, Seitz and Zigler, 1979). Recent research in a study controlled and matched for IQ and SES, compared "matched" groups, intending to reveal any social class or race differences that remained after controlling for IQ variation. There were measures of creativity, self confidence, autonomy, curiosity, frustration thresholds, and dependence. None of these measures showed a significant difference between races, but there were differences between socioeconomic groups. That is, Black, white and Chicano children of the same socioeconomic status performed at the same level. But children of the same race and the same IQ performed very differently if they were from different socioeconomic levels. Therefore, socioeconomic status may be the most significant factor hindering children, regardless of race.

The Yando, et al study also validated again that the teacher's perception of a child's traits are important to the child's performance. That is, in this study, the teacher's rating of problem solving and academic skills actually did predict performance. "Halo" effects operated and the favorable ratings more often went to the more advantaged children. The question is, of course, are teachers perceiving real differences which predict, or are teacher's perceptions "teasing" out the better performances? An interesting note with regard to assessment also came out in this research. The authors state that several creativity measures correllated highly with the children's willingness to assert in an interview that they had negative personal characteristics.

The attitude of the teacher may affect student performance in another way, as shown by a study by Banks, McQuater & Hubbard (1978). Because minorities have usually felt exploited and ignored by whites, minorities do not always respond as one would expect to a teacher's kindness. This study showed that sensitive and conscientious teachers had a negative effect on achievement motivation of black students. The somewhat antagonistic, insensitive conscientious teachers did not have a negative effect. The researchers propose that sensitivity creates dissonance and confusion, because antagonism is what the minority students expect. The conclusion we draw from this study is that it takes time for culturally different students to learn to trust a teacher in whom they observe behavior they don't expect.

Whenever we discuss assessment and identification of culturally different, gifted and talented children, it is important to remember that the most accurate resource we have for identification of these children is the members of the cultural group themselves. A number of sources suggest that students should be judged by community and cultural norms, not national norms. It is further suggested that the members of a culture know who their own gifted members are, and identification processes may benefit from the participation of parents and peers who are members of the cultural group.

Another issue to consider is whether gifted children from minority cultures actually want to be identified. Research in 1981 (Trotter 1981) looked at academically able black male adolescents who were low achieving and those who were high achieving. The research showed, first of all, that adolescent males in general are more susceptible to peer pressure than adolescent females, and black adolescents are more susceptible to peer pressure than white adolescents. Therefore, it is not surprising that the Black males who were academically able, very often did not work at achieving because they perceived loss of peer approval in association with academic performance. Trotter found that these Black youth believed that when they performed well, they moved away from peers and felt they could not "return." Trotter found that a significant number of Black adolescent males who were well able to do well in school believed that their peers valued education less than they did, but they had no way of checking that belief out without losing "face."

There is a large body of research which discusses achievement in relation to the student's perception of whether performance is due to personal effort and ability or whether success at a task occurs because it is easy or because of luck. When a child believes that his or her own effort and ability are responsibile for his or her success, he or she is said to have an internal locus of control. If the success is attributed to task ease of luck, the child is said to have an external locus. The internal locus of control is considered more desireable for achievement because the personal sense of control is usually motivating. Most of this research fits the majority of the middle class and above.

However, because of the labor market, poor transportation, social class or racial discrimination, low achievement for a person from a minority group may indeed be due to external factors. Therefore, instead of depressing motivation, focus on external forces may be motivationally healthy and realistic for a culturally different person.

Focus on internal forces for a person from a minority group may mean, on the other hand, that the student believes it is his own fault that he hasn't achieved more. It is clear that this is untrue at times (Gurin, Gurin, Loo and Beattie). Gurin et al also found that external control in minority group members is associated with greater aspirations, more effective behaviors, and for Blacks, less traditional

Black occupations. For Blacks also, internal control implied self-blame as a Black person and involved a readiness to accept traditional restraints on Blacks'behavior. Therefore, we need to remember that an external locus of control may be more healthy for a culturally different person due to social reality.

Finally, following is a general list of criteria for identifying all gifted, some of which have been mentioned previously. However, they bear repeating.

1. Gifted and talented children may be performing in an outstanding way in some activity outside of school. If you know that, you can be sure that school performance could be different if the child could be reached and motivated.
2. Gifted and talented people are able to improvise with commonplace materials. Watch for this quality.
3. Gifted and talented people often have a well developed sense of humor.
4. The ability to express feelings and emotions clearly and dramatically may indicate talent.
5. A gifted child will often have a richness in imagery or in informal language.
6. The gifted child may show enjoyment and ability in creative movement or visual arts and music (Gallagher, 1974).

PART II

So far, we have discussed the complex question of the identification of giftedness among the culturally different. The discussion necessitated an essential acceptance of a broader and enlarged understanding of the concept of giftedness, namely as a "multifaceted phenomenon determined by multiple criteria and expressed in diverse ways" (Frazier, 1979, p.304). This wider definition enables us to consider further some of the factors which play an essential role, whether positive or negative, in the process of helping such children develop their unique characteristics and abilities.

It is not in the scope of this paper to present or evaluate the many different programs and strategies which have been developed, nor to present a new "package" or "model" to be tried and adapted to specific needs and situations. There are many ways of providing for the differentiated needs and abilities of the gifted and talented culturally different. The challenge of developing appropriate strategies is as vast as our imaginations blended with an accurate understanding of the children we seek to educate and their specific backgrounds as well as their present socioeconomic, psychological and education situation. The answer lies in the awareness of what is appropriate, feasible and realistic in the case of each child.

The writers are of the opinion that the development of giftedness among the culturally different can be encouraged and nurtured in complementary ways and with a holistic effect by means of informal naturally occurring strategies as well as by well-planned and structured programs. The former may occur in a variety of settings and be implemented by significant persons not necessarily educators and specialists, while the latter will require thorough research, expertise, professional skill and financial expenditures, although it is understood that pouring great amounts of money into a program or system does not automatically guarantee that the program will achieve what is expected. Both the formal and the informal perspectives on helping strategies are multifaceted and therin lie their strength and flexibility. Ideally, they complement and strengthen each other and in this way may involve not only individuals with special skills, but the whole society of which the culturally different gifted are a unique part. Helping persons have at their disposal a thousand different ways of effecting change.

INFORMAL AND NATURAL INTERVENTIONS AND APPROACHES

The key principle is ENCOURAGEMENT

Timely, genuine and appropriate encouragement given by a significant other has inspired many a person (including ourselves) to overcome obstacles, apathy or discouragement; has changed the lives of great persons in history, and the self-concepts and motivations of countless children. During interviews with culturally different graduate students in the University of Wisconsin, the writers were interested in knowing what had influenced these students in pursuing college education. Each student could recall only one teacher who had shown recognition of their ability and who had provided encouragement which they had never forgotten.

In the presentation of the Seventh Walter Van Dyke Bingham Memorial Lecture, Dael Wolfe (1960) re-echoes the principle, "Talent requires encouragement if it is to reach its full development," for it can counteract negative influences in the environment, it can stretch the range of vision and strengthen self-confidence. It can also be built into a social system through customs and traditions that characterize a social group (p. 538). The method of encouragement however, needs to be culturally acceptable and meaningful.

Accommodating and valuing DIVERSITY

Although we agree upon the value of 'diversity,' it appears that strong forces are constantly at work to make us more alike. This makes a talented person 'well-rounded' rather than 'uneven.' In a similar way there is a tendency to reduce variability among group members, and for teachers to use uniform lesson assignments, to work out grade averages and norms. However from our definition of giftedness and from our experience with the culturally different gifted, we know that abilities are very diverse both among and within people. Our potentials are more like hills and valleys rather than plains ... and are too valuable to be levelled out and flatened into conformity. Such an experience could not have been more vividly and picturesquely described than in Harold Benjamin's fable in which the case of the eagle is presented.

> The eagle was a truly brilliant student. His flying was superb, his running and jumping were at the best, and he even passed the swimming test, although the teacher tried to keep him from using his wings too much. By employing his talons and beak, moreover, he could climb, after a fashion, and no doubt he would have been able to pass that course, too, except that he always flew to the top of the problem tree or cliff when the teacher's back was turned and sat there lazily in the sun, preening his feathers and staring arrogantly down at his fellow students climbing up the hard way. The teachers reasoned with him to no avail. He would not study climbing seriously. At first he turned aside the faculty's importunities with relatively mild wisecracks and innuendoes, but as the teachers put more pressure upon him he reacted with more and more feeling... (and finally quit school altogether).
>
> (Benjamin, 1955)

How does this relate to the culturally different gifted? Firstly, and basically it implies that we need to perceive giftedness whereever it is to be found — whether hidden in unexpected and out-of-the-way places in children who may seem ordinary in every way but one...perhaps that is the great mountain, the rich nugget of potential in art, music, or leadership, or any other diverse ability not easily perceived and measured by the usual tests of intellectual or aesthetic aptitude.

Secondly, it implies the provision of freedom, scope and versatility for children to concentrate on the development and nurture of specific talents and skills. Making room for diversity necessitates also the adequate supply of resources and stimulation for the optimum development of these abilities. It might well be noted here that diversity of abilities infers an equal if not greater diversity of needs each unique to its owner and crying out to be met and satisfied.

The Significance of MENTORS

Mentors may be people in the community or in the school who formally or informally provide a variety of supportive experiences and assist in the nurturance and development of a child's talent. Because they provide meaning and enrichment to activities without the atmosphere of competition and obligation, because they often if not always serve in a voluntary capacity due to interest in students, their influence is hard to exceed. The personal relationship, the loose structure, the unthreatening setting where 'tryouts' can be made without fear of criticism and the constant presence of some form of 'assessment,' make the 'mentor concept' a very attractive and appropriate one for culturally different gifted children.

ROLE MODELS as effective interventions

In simple terms a role model is a person whom a child may emulate.

Children need models from their own racial group and culture. Lacking role models among people from their own ethnic group, Puerto Rican children, research shows, are not able to relate the process of education to later success. Instead they are confused and alienated (Murillo-Rohde, 1976). For the gifted of any cultural group, older students, teachers, counselors, ministers and other prominent figures may become such models, and as children identify themselves with the qualities, vocations, successes and personalities of these models in their own ethnic group, their own self-esteem, identity, aspirations and self-confidence will be strengthened. Exum (1979) emphasizes the importance of role models, including personal relationship and contact, for gifted Black students, who also need interpersonal skills which would allow fuller participation and easier communication in the majority culture.

FORMAL INTERVENTIONS AND STRATEGIES

Formal programs and interventions, unlike the spontaneous and natural responses to needs as described earlier, are usually well-planned, prepared and have some specific objectives whether preventive, corrective or developmental. Usually such programs are responses to identified needs and problems. Programs for the culturally different gifted are no exception.

In 1973, the Foundation for Exceptional Children sponsored a conference which focused on the educational problems of culturally different gifted children, and sought to make recommendations for the solution of these problems. Participants listed in four broad categories, major issues and barriers which prevented action on behalf of the culturally different gifted. It was noted that many of the barriers listed were actually components of the mainstream culture, having an adverse effect on the children of the minority culture, although not intended to be such.

The same participants who drew up the problem list, were asked to discuss and formulate broad action guidelines and solutions, and to suggest plans for application of effective and relevant interventions which would counteract and resolve the problems. This was found to be a more formidable task than expected, for "no single type of elixir could solve the diverse problems of culturally-different gifted children" (F.E.C., 1974, p.14). Table I summarizes these issues in their broad categories, with suggested strategies for dealing with them.

The strategies presented in Table I contain and reflect concepts and perceptions indispensible to any program for the educational and personal enrichment of the culturally different gifted. A prominent aspect is flexibility, in respect to content, curriculum, policy, expectations and approaches used to teach the child. Providing a flexible learning climate, as well as optimum freedom, leeway and opportunity to have options, keeps the children progressing at their own pace with minimal tension and frustration.

TABLE I

SELECTED BARRIERS TO, AND SUGGESTED STRATEGIES FOR, HELPING THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT GIFTED*

BROAD CATEGORIES	BARRIERS AND PROBLEMS	SUGGESTED STRATEGIES
SCHOOL PROGRAM	THE CHILD'S INTEGRATION WITH TEACHERS & PROGRAM:	
	The definition of "gifted" is too narrow and inadequate.	New criteria for defining "gifted" are needed.
	Identification is based on IQ tests designed for middle class children.	Identification must depend on other measures in addition to IQ.
	Learning environments are too rigid, and diverse talents are not recognized.	Learning environments should be more open and community oriented with the use of various types of media to break down cultural and rural isolation.
	Curriculum designs are inflexible.	Curriculums should be more flexible and include multi-ethnic content.
	Dialect or language difficulties hinder learning skills.	Bidialectal or bilingual approach to language should be stressed.
EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM	THE SYSTEM'S IMPACT ON THE CHILD:	
	Teacher training does not provide methods to identify and teach children whose backgrounds differ from white middle class culture.	Teacher training should be revamped to include education about cultural diversity.
	A teacher's creativity and flexibility in the classroom are not emphasized.	Emphasis should be placed on teaching skills that enhance creativity and expressiveness.
	School administrators are unaware of or indifferent to learning needs of the culturally different.	School boards should insist on accountability from gifted programs regarding minority group participation.
	Bureaucratic procedures or the concept that "all children should be educated alike" precludes special curriculum.	Special programming should be initiated.

TABLE I (continued)

SELECTED BARRIERS TO, AND SUGGESTED STRATEGIES FOR, HELPING THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT GIFTED*

BROAD CATEGORIES	BARRIERS AND PROBLEMS	SUGGESTED STRATEGIES
SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT	THE CHILD'S ECOLOGY AND SOCIAL PRESSURES ON HIM:	
	There is a lack of recognition of minority group giftedness.	
	Conflicts between values of minority and mainstream cultures.	Try to overcome cultural bias through dissemination of information concerning other cultures.
	Peer pressure devalues school achievement.	
	Minority children's self-concepts are frequently very low.	Self-concepts can be raised through understanding and respect of the key educational staff.
	Psychological and physical needs of minority children are often neglected.	Being in classes with gifted children may overcome negative peer pressure.
	Culturally different gifted in rural areas are doubly isolated.	
DECISION MAKERS	CONTROLLING PUBLIC ACTIONS WHICH AFFECT THE ESTABLISHMENT OF OR SUPPORT FOR PROGRAMS:	
	There are difficulties in obtaining state or federal funds for this gifted group.	Organized citizen action groups can make needs known and obtain more funds.
	A national policy for culturally different gifted children never has been articulated.	Professional educators should push for a visible national policy.
	A lack of coordination exists among local, state, and federal agencies.	On the local level, parents and educators can encourage utilization of community resources for special programs.
		Pilot projects should be started and results published nationwide.

*Adapted from F.E.C., 1974, p. 6,15.

Many of these children have heavier responsibilities in their homes and such flexibility reflects also the teacher's understanding and respect for their out of school concerns.

A flexible curriculum can be very enriching, evoking curiosity, originality, heightened interest and an urge for discovery. It will also be less structured, providing more realistic learning situations, and more options for the various learning styles which characterize these children. For example it is known that native American and Black children prefer and excel in visual learning while Riessman (1962) points out that learning styles of disadvantaged children take on other characteristics, being more physical than aural, content centered, externally oriented, inductive and spatial. How does this list compare with the gifted disadvantaged? Gowan (1979) states that such children tend to have their effective learning styles destroyed by alienation, emotional problems, hostility or resentment — all of which block creative performance.

The more flexible and less rigid the system and curriculum, the greater the need for teachers who are flexible, creative, courageous, energetic, unconventional and thoroughly trained and educated. Selection of such teachers, according to Donna R. Clasen (1981) should be on a basis of their self-image, interest, openness and desire to work with the culturally different. It is not surprising that so much emphasis is placed on the personal qualities of the teacher, for gifted children are characterized by more curiosity, diverse skills and needs, more originality of thought, more idiosyncracies, and forever challenging and questioning traditional knowledge and the teacher's way of doing things. Teachers who recognize (without being threatened) and encourage such attitudes will and can capitalize on the diversity of the strengths of these children, expanding and intensifying their richness.

However, non-conforming behavior may be misunderstood and misinterpreted by the teacher lacking in sensitivity and understanding. For example a child who talks out of turn may be removed from the class as a trouble-maker, when in fact the child may be unable to withhold expressing ideas and contributing to the activity with considerable creativity. The child may really need a remedy in form of independent study under stimulating supervision peer tutoring supplemented with an enriched environment. This perspective applies to other non-conforming behavior such as not paying attention, working sloppily or carelessly (perhaps bored and needing a more interesting curricula), challenging authority and inciting others to do so, (perhaps this is legitimate, and the child has strong leadership potential, and needs opportunity for development of social responsibility and leadership), or, not being able to sit still and constantly teasing or interrupting others (perhaps having a very high energy level and high potential for group identification and needing quiet space activities, cross-peer instruction combined with group presentation to peers). In other words, sensitivity is an indispensible quality for the teacher of the culturally different gifted, since it involves responding, appreciating and allowing differentness. Philip C. Chin (1979) states that sensitivity

> "suggests an open mind that is receptive to the cultural contributions each child in the class can offer. Sensitivity can develop through learning from the children, from the numerous publications on cultural diversity and by the individual's receptiveness to experiences in cultural diversity available in the community." (p. 535)

However, teachers of the culturally different gifted need to develop and apply far more than sensitivity if they are to improve self-concepts, confidence, self-esteem and the acceptance of their giftedness on the part of these children. For them, the teacher is facilitator, mentor, model and a meaningful and significant person. They should see the teacher as one who having observed their life and learning styles, skills, and attitudes, is willing and capable of responding fully and richly without reserve and regret. Such an expectation can only be met when in addition to what has already been discussed, the teacher is enlightened on the matter of "cultural diversity and a careful study of the idiosyncrasies of each ethnic group, coupled with sound special education techniques which will provide a basic foundation for meeting the needs of these children" (Chin, 1979, p. 534).

Paul Torrance, who specialized in the discovery and nurturance of giftedness in the culturally different (1977), compiled a checklist of the kinds of attitudes and behaviors that teachers should look for and seek to develop. The checklist (P. 89-90), could be an excellent basis for a roundtable discussion by parents, teachers and others in the community, on the implication of these behaviors both for the home and the school. For example many native American gifted are observed to be artistic - their drawings tell stories, show movement and depict natural phenomena. How can these gifts be developed? Others can tell stories in mime, create ingenious toys, instruments and stories. Still others show amazing capacity for hard work, sustained attention, and commitment. Some organize, plan, influence, question, contrive, scrutinize and explore. The list of what these children excel at, is both long and challenging. Enriching the environment in such a way as to tap, develop and nurture these gifts requires an equally inventive, ingenious, sustained and committed planning on the part of educators.

While looking at the specific and unusual expressions of giftedness in these children, we must not forget that their basic skills need to be developed. The school and home must not lose sight of the fact that the weaker areas of the culturally different learner need to be strengthened for they are necessary in the dominant society structure (Clasen, 1981).

How the teacher facilitates the children in acquiring basic skills is of great importance. Both materials and approaches need to be 'culture fair,' but at the same time culturally different children need to be acclimatized to learning and testing experiences with which they and their parents are most likely to be unfamiliar.

In addition to the acquisition of these basic skills Perrone (1978) asserts that best performance at school is possible when two other conditions are met, namely self respect (knowing one's heritage and taking pride in one's roots), and self confidence ('understanding the behavioral and attitudinal expectations in the classroom and having the needed survival skills to function in a personally and socially meaningful manner').

Innumerable programs and policies for the educational and vocational enrichment of the culturally different gifted have been planned and implemented, although admittedly plans by far out number the actual implementation. In fact research for identifying and understanding the culturally different far outweighs efforts to implement programs. However, all agree that what is needed are programs and strategies of quality with meaningful outcome. S. Baldwin (1979) who has studied this subject indicates that a quality program involves:

1. Proper identification and diagnosis,
2. A curriculum that establishes parameters for instructional decisions,

3. Enriching experiences through varied teaching strategies, and
4. Teachers with qualities of humanness, perception, patience and intelligence (P. 37).

A strategy to facilitate psychological and emotional development of gifted Black students has been presented by Exum (1979) as Deliberate Psychological Education (D.P.E.). The model offers a framework for counselors working with these students. It is expressed through courses into which are integrated laboratory activities, through which students can experience and experiment with new roles in a variety of settings. The experiences encourage divergent thinking. Exum emphasizes the commitment aspect as a product of psychological development of the gifted Black. He does not indicate however what kinds of results or effects this model has actually had for a given group of Black students.

Based on the conviction that selecting (discovering) and nurturing programs must fit together harmoniously, and believing also that it is highly incongruent to recruit academically gifted students for programs requiring creative achievement, Torrance (1977) makes a variety of alternative suggestions for the college and high school levels. These include centers for talent development, creative studies and centers of transition, where, using Torrance's own terminology, the move is 'from cultural positives to mainstream requirements.' He places considerable emphasis on these 'creative positives' for the particular strengths of the culturally different. Sharing the fruits of those strengths, and developing pride in them and building bridges from them, will help such students cope with and grow out of feelings of alienation. Heavy reliance on working in teams and learning in small groups is regarded as a special and significant aspect of programs for the culturally different gifted (Torrance, 1977).

The writers are aware that parents play an indispensible role in the identifying and nurturing of their children's giftedness. All too often they feel the same isolation which their children feel; they refrain from participating in parent organizations, and feel reluctant in associating with members who have different socioeconomic status and cultural backgrounds and interests. But they too need to belong, to build up their self-esteem, and to learn from others how to better understand their children and to value their exceptionality. Educators can do much to alleviate parent loneliness and sense of ineffectiveness, by assuring them that they need not feel guilty about their child's problem or exceptionality; by not labeling or categorizing them but rather accepting and respecting them; by helping them to see positives in the future and to plan realistically yet optimistically for their children; and by assisting them to find and choose the range of programs, services and financial resources which will be needed to help them educate their children with dignity and pride.

5. Search for better strategies to recognize bilingual needs and the potential richness of cultural differences.
6. Develop appropriate guidance and other ancillary services and help these pupils with affective matters such as peer and family attitudes toward the gifted child's "being different" and the recognition of options.
7. Secure opportunities for these pupils to serve in various community agencies.
8. Assist in the development of financial resources if needed; expand opportunities for the gifted student to serve and to work as a means of earning some income.

(p. 27-31)

Finally, at first glance it may appear that the diversity of abilities and cultural groups is a handicap for the educator, a financial burden to the State, a thorn in the flesh of administrators and a thorough spanner-in-the works for the curriculum planner. In actual fact, this store of diversity of talent is a valuable asset. It enhances the nation's intellectual, social and aesthetic resources; it saves the whole system from the plague of uniformity and mediocrity and porvides excitement, challenge and ingenuity to the scene. Furthermore, it generates creativity and intiative.

How is it then, that the culturally different gifted in our society continue to be a hidden and neglected asset? That is the paradox and the challenge which the writers present to all who wish to share in tapping and developing the diverse potentials of our nation's culturally different gifted and talented.

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PARENTS - THE PRIME RESOURCE:
SUPPORT GROUPS OF THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

by:

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1982

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April 2, 1982

Dear Gifted and Talented Coordinator:

We are writing to share with you the issues and emotions that keep bubbling to the surface since we received the letter from you that our son has been identified as eligible for the gifted and talented program. Initially, we are very proud. Somehow this validates that we are good parents and that our efforts to insure a meaningful, worthwhile life for him is starting to produce results. Yet, despite our pride, we have many doubts, fears and questions.

What does this mean for him? What were the criteria by which he was chosen? How is he gifted? How will he be treated by his peers? How will his teachers react to him? Will he finally get stimulating activities or just more of the same busywork piled on? Will he have time to be a child? Or will be be pushed too fast? How will this affect our family? What impact will there be on our other children? Do we have to change as a family? Will there be a financial drain?

> A time strain?
>
> Needless to say, we are proud, yet anxious about adventuring into new and unknown territory. Just when things were smoothing out for us as a family we get another jolt. Frankly, we're afraid. After considerable thought we are turning to you for help and clarification of some of our concerns. Perhaps you can give us some answers or at least give us some direction as to where to seek information.
>
> Yours truly,
>
> Mr. & Mrs. _______________

This letter typifies the initial reactions of parents whose children have recently been identified as gifted and talented. These multiple questions and mixed feelings have prompted the belief that parents of gifted and talented youngsters need participation in a support group. The intent of this paper is to provide a basis for parents and educators to consider the feasibility of forming support groups for parents of gifted and talented children. To accomplish this goal, there are two sections. The first section will present an overview of parenting and family issues which provide evidence for the need of support groups. Secondly, a model for parent group formation is presented and discussed. While the letter above reflects a need for mutual support among parents of the gifted, the purpose here is to recognize a dual purpose. That is, a need for mutual support and a need for the advocacy of gifted and talented education. To assist parents and educators in the practical issues of information gathering and implementation planning, a reference list of parent support group resources and a checklist of activities to be completed for parent support formation are presented in Appendix A.

OVERVIEW OF PARENTING AND FAMILY ISSUES

There are many parents of gifted and talented students who recognize the awesome commitment and responsibility which comes with the awareness of their child's advanced developmental characteristics. In the recent years, the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS), a research-through-service agency on the University of Wisconsin-Madison campus, has initiated a systematic research effort aimed at investigating the parenting styles, family dynamics, the interaction of family and school, parenting needs, and family-school intervention strategies which may facilitate the development of the gifted and talented learner. Through GIFTS contact with families and schools, parents have been found to be concerned, fearful, proud, frustrated, energized and oftentimes, angry in attempting to deal with educational issues when their child has been identified as gifted. Parental intervention strategies are critically important.

Schwartz (1981) stresses that parents must have the relevant skills to challenge and provide opportunities for growth so that their gifted child can become a gifted and mentally healthy adult. Those parent skill areas have been grouped into the following areas: a) handling questions; b) developing physical and social skills; c) teaching decision-making; d) encouraging activities; e) being a model; f) facing giftedness; and g) enhancing family relationships. Given the amount of increased involvement and economic stresses that are a sign of the times, the intensive strivings of a gifted child can only seem to be another burden for an already over-stressed but concerned parent.

There are several issues which support the strategy of parents developing support groups for the purposes of emotional support and advocacy for gifted education. Parents of the gifted and talented are considered to be the prime support base for two reasons. First, parents know their child in a unique manner in which no other adult in that child's life possibly can. For this reason, educators must listen when parents talk about the behavioral indicators of giftedness and when parents speak of the learning process their child is exhibiting. Secondly, parents of a gifted child have adapted in a unique manner to handle the idiosyncrasies of a child who seems to learn and process his/her environment in "leaps and bounds." For the parents who continually provide a challenging, stimulating and secure environment for their children, the designation of "gifted" parent is quite appropriate.

Research on the family provides further support for parents being closely involved in the education of their children. Fine and Pitts (1980) discuss several family related issues which contribute to gifted underachievement. Parents may become so enraptured by the advanced and unique capabilities of their child that they become seduced into thinking their child is an adult. The result is the child being reinforced for acting adultlike while the child may still be emotionally, socially, or physically a child. Family rules or family norms regarding school work or special interest areas of the gifted and talented child may be too permissive or too restrictive. The consequence in this case is the child either feeling a lack of recognition for his/her work or the child resisting the standard the family or school places on academic performance.

A third family issue is the family-school conflicts which occur over concerns of how to cope with the gifted and talented child and who is responsible for the learning of the child (Fine and Pitts, 1980). Parents and the school personnel may be perceiving that each are not doing enough to meet the needs of the gifted and talented child or that certain activities or attitudes are harmful to the child. In this instance, either the parents, the child or school personnel may be inadvertently sabotaging the effort to resolve the conflict.

The final issue in the family context which is mentioned by several researchers is unresolved family or marital conflict (Albert, 1978; Fine, 1977; Fine & Pitts, 1980; Newman, Dember & Krug, 1973; Thiel & Thiel, 1977). Albert (1978), in his historical study of eminent people, concludes that there is usually an imbalanced marital relationship which occurred in the family of the eminent person. The term "imbalanced marital relationship" is analogous to the triangulation processes which family therapists propose to be detrimental to family functioning. Triangulation is the emotional over-involvement of any two members of a family which results in the exclusion of a third family member. In effect, there is potential for the family systems' enhancement of the talented child to be happening through the unfortunate maintenance of debilitating family patterns. Parents will, early in their precocious child's development, observe and recognize accelerated abilities. If there exists unresolved marital or family conflicts, and the tendency in the family is to avoid or leave the stress unresolved, the family may opt out of the stressful situation by focusing on the development of the child's talents. The emphasis by the family on the talent is perceived as positive and enabling. Thereby the family has successfully avoided the conflict while the gifted child's talent is being recognized and reinforced at the expense of the family being nurturing, adaptive and flexible.

A review of this research has prompted GIFTS to develop a model of family functioning which is believed to be enabling for a family with a gifted and talented member. This model suggests the need for parents to develop groups for the purpose of mutual support and advocacy of gifted education. This model (Figure I) has been derived from such diverse fields as psychology, family therapy, sociology, counseling and guidance and psychiatry. In the model, family interaction must be characterized by balanced levels of individual autonomy and emotional bonding; and, balanced levels of flexibility occurring in the rules, roles and power structures in the family. The family research suggests that there needs to be only moderate levels of individual autonomy, emotional bonding, and flexibility for optimal family functioning. Two other dimensions, the amount of family support, and the clarity and congruence of communication, are hypothesized to facilitate the development of the gifted and talented child and positive level of family functioning. In contrast to the two interactive dimensions above, family support and communication are directly related. That is, as the amount of family support and the clarity of communication increases, the family functioning improves in a direct proportion.

Obviously, there is a wealth of knowledge and research in the area of family influences upon the gifted and talented learner. Family issues regarding the parents being the prime educators of their

FIGURE I

FAMILY DIMENSIONS FOR POSITIVE FAMILY FUNCTIONING*

I. Balanced levels of emotional bonding and individual autonomy experienced in family.

II. Balanced levels of flexibility in power structures, rules and roles.

- -

III. Family Support - Approval; Praise, Mutual Parent-Child Affection; Trust; Respect; Cooperation; Encouragement but not Overinsistence.

IV. Clarity & Congruence of Communication

  A. Agreement between spoken word and perceived meaning
  B. Degree of Expressiveness
  C. Degree of Empathy - sensitivity to & understanding of feelings
  D. Degree of Feeling Tone

*Critical and observable at times of developmental and situational stress.

children, the tendency for parents to "adultize" their child, the existence of family rules regarding educational achievement, the occurrence of family-school conflicts over the responsibilities of educating the gifted child, the unresolved marital/family conflict, and finally, the proposed model for family functioning strongly indicates the need for support groups for parenting issues and advocacy of gifted and talented education.

The diversity of issues briefly summarized in this section make it understandable why parents can be overwhelmed by the complex developmental and educational issues of the gifted and talented. Parent support groups can provide the emotional support and the organizational structure which will give parents a forum to discuss parenting issues and gain mutual support, provide an opportunity to learn about the field of gifted education, assist the local school districts in programming for gifted and talented children, and organize family, school and community resources.

PARENT GROUP FORMATION

The impetus for initiating a parent support group usually comes from one of two directions. One force emanates directly from parents who are looking for mutual emotional support from other parents with similar experiences in nurturing and guiding their gifted children. These children learn earlier, faster, differently and in more depth than their peers or siblings.

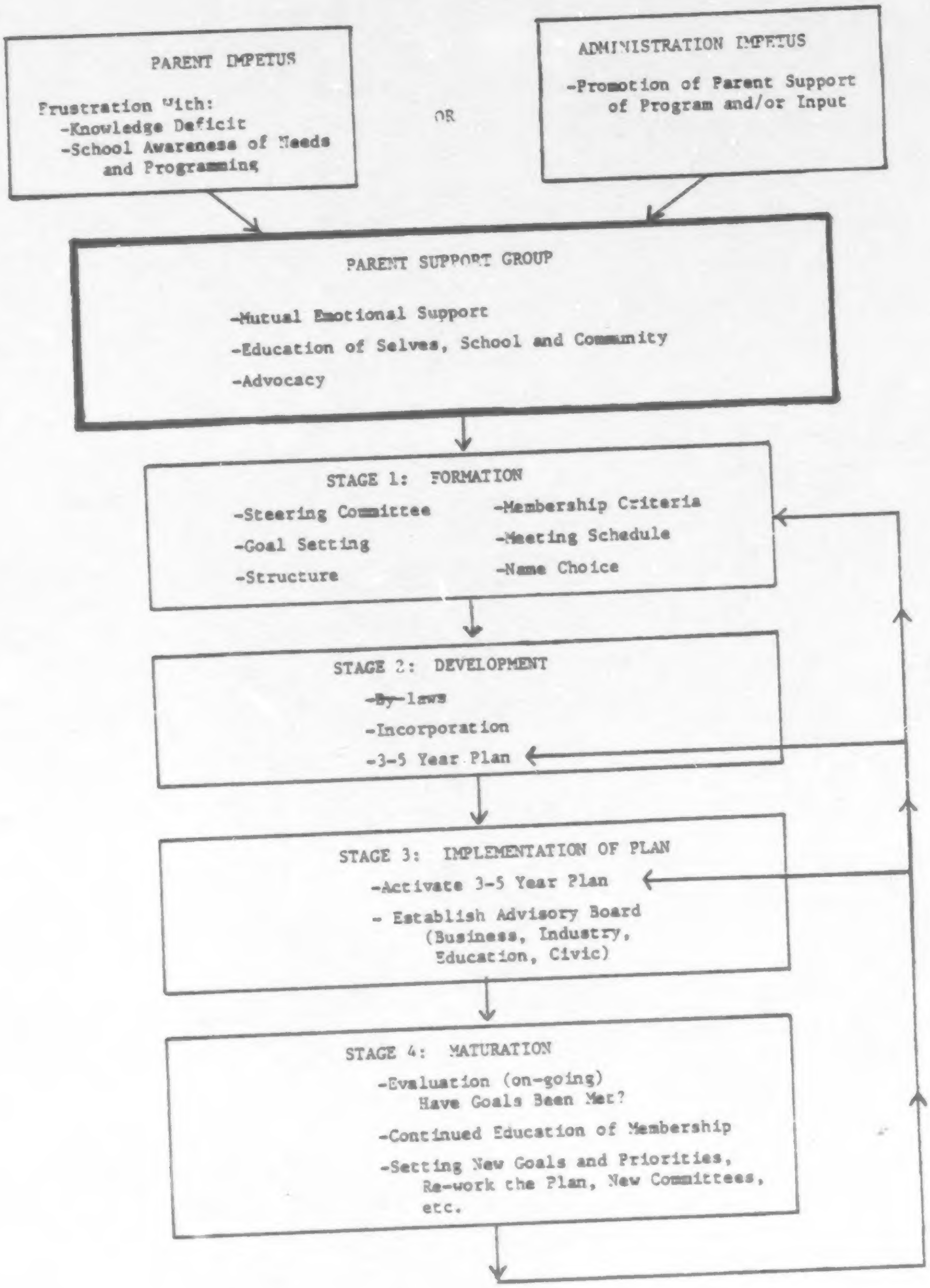
Some parents have experienced frustration due to lack of knowledge about gifted childrens' normal development. Others have experienced frustration in attempting to work with the school system in order to provide experiences that meet their children's needs. The result in either case is that they reach out to one another, meeting together in order to share, support and eventually learn more about giftedness.

The second type of impetus comes directly from the school administration. Usually administrators attempt to gather parents of high potential students together to inform them about an impending program, or one that currently exists, and to educate parents about giftedness and the special needs of these children. They may ask for parental support in a variety of capacities and/or for input into program development. Support might be as volunteer teacher helpers, transportation, resource person, I.M.C. volunteer, etc.

Regardless which mechanism may stimulate the formation of a parent group, it quickly becomes apparent that the group must evolve in stages. Various authors, Bostick (1980), Coffey (1976), Mitchell (1981) and Posa (1973), have suggested plans that have worked for their respective groups. We are proposing the following four stage model (Figure II) as a synthesis and adaptation of multiple successful groups.

FIGURE II

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF PARENT SUPPORT GROUP
FOR GIFTED AND TALENTED


PARENT IMPETUS
Frustration With:
-Knowledge Deficit
-School Awareness of Needs and Programming
OR
ADMINISTRATION IMPETUS
-Promotion of Parent Support of Program and/or Input
PARENT SUPPORT GROUP
-Mutual Emotional Support
-Education of Selves, School and Community
-Advocacy
STAGE 1: FORMATION
-Steering Committee
-Goal Setting
-Structure
-Membership Criteria
-Meeting Schedule
-Name Choice
STAGE 2: DEVELOPMENT
-By-laws
-Incorporation
-3-5 Year Plan
STAGE 3: IMPLEMENTATION OF PLAN
-Activate 3-5 Year Plan
- Establish Advisory Board (Business, Industry, Education, Civic)
STAGE 4: MATURATION
-Evaluation (on-going) Have Goals Been Met?
-Continued Education of Membership
-Setting New Goals and Priorities, Re-work the Plan, New Committees, etc.

STAGE 1: FORMATION OF THE GROUP

The initial tasks in support group formation are:

1. Set up a steering committee of 7-10 people with some knowledge about the characteristics and needs of gifted and talented youngsters. These people should be vitally interested, future oriented individuals who are willing to spend the necessary time to establish a strong foundation for their parent group.

2. Formulate goals of the group. It is important to have the goals established before inviting the general public to participate in the group. This gives people an opportunity to know precisely what kind of organization they are joining, i.e., political, educational, social, etc.

3. Establish the necessary structure needed to fulfill those goals. The recommended structure is a series of committees. Coffey (1976) has suggested a basic series which we recommend: By-laws, Program, Publicity, Hospitality, Membership and Public Affairs. Your goals may suggest other necessary committees.

4. Select a name.

5. Determine membership criteria.

6. Establish membership fees.

7. Develop a schedule of future meetings.

STAGE 2: DEVELOPMENT OF THE GROUP

1. Write the by-laws. By-laws should be kept as simple and flexible as possible. There are numerous existing organization by-laws that may be used as a model. It is recommended that a lawyer serve on this committee if available.

2. Establish non-profit status in order to remain exempt from taxation.

3. Incorporate the group in order to free officers and members from liability.

4. Prioritize goals.

5. Develop a three to five year plan for the group. Our recommendations include providing a mechanism for mutual emotional support. However, we believe the group cannot function for this reason alone or it will die for lack of on-going purpose. Therefore, we recommend a plan for the education of group members. Following the education of the group, a natural evolution occurs -- that of sharing their knowledge with the community-at-large via meetings, articles, speakers, media, etc. Another resultant activity in this plan is that of developing an advocacy function at the local

level and possibly state and/or national levels. If an exemplary program already exists, the group might offer their services and support where needed within the schools (resource people, aides, I.M.C. volunteers, developers of community resource list, etc.). They might also advocate to the Board of Education for continued funding and support for what the administration and staff is presently doing and planning for the future. If the program is inadequate or non-existent, the group should share its knowledge of the needs of gifted and talented children and the consequences of not providing for them with administration and staff in order to promote appropriate programming. This activity requires diplomacy, persistence and assertiveness.

STAGE 3: IMPLEMENTATION OF PLAN

1. Implement the plan developed in Stage 2.
2. Establish an advisory board. At this point we recommend, as Posa (1973) does, the establishment of an advisory board which would be drawn from business, industry, education and civic organizations. This board would provide contacts outside, as well as inside, the schools and become an automatic public relations link with the community.

STAGE 4: MATURATION

1. Develop an on-going evaluation plan. As the plan has been implemented, have the goals been met in the approximate time-frame? Have the priorities changed? What was learned? Do changes need to be made in the plan or is it satisfactory? As the evaluation proceeds, adjustments must be made, new priorities set, new plans developed and the process begins again.

2. Provide for on-going education of members. At this stage it is important to remember that provisions need to be made for educational programs for the membership. A continuous flow of new members must be brought along. If new membership is not sought and nurtured, the organization will probably dissolve. If this dissolution occurs, so does public support for gifted and talented programming. If the schools are financially pressured, without vocal, public support, funding for gifted and talented programming will very likely be cut.

The needs of the gifted child and the needs of those parenting that child will not disappear. It has been shown that the family life does impact upon the educational and career development of a gifted family member. Through continued questioning and systematic research, we hope to contribute, in the best possible way, to the development of human beings who have great potential. A programmatic schema has been presented and discussed to aid those individuals in the formation of a parent support group. Given the overview of parenting and family issues, strategies aimed at eliciting mutual support for parenting concerns, learning about gifted education, providing resources for local and regional gifted and talented programs and developing an advocacy role for the gifted have been emphasized. Support group resources and a checklist of group formation activities are included in Appendix A as practical aids for establishing parent support groups. Parents of the gifted and talented youngsters need support and commitment from each other and from the community as much as the students need the same from their parents. It is imperative that we work together effectively through the development and enrichment of strong parent groups.

APPENDIX A

PARENT GROUP CHECKLIST

PARENT SUPPORT GROUP BIBLIOGRAPHY

GIFTS Guidance Institute for Talented Students
University of Wisconsin—Madison

PARENT GROUP CHECKLIST

For each item listed below, place a mark in the appropriate box. When completed rank each item according to how important you feel the activity is to the development and maintenance of your Parent Group.

ITEMS	Have Done	Can Do	Would Do	Must Do	Priority Ranking
Secure a meeting room, e.g., Bank, School, Community Center, Library, etc.					
Find out what other Parent Groups are doing.					
Set up Method of Funding.					
Choose Leaders carefully.					
Contact school board members and school administrators.					
Initiate a cooperative, working relationship with your schools.					
Send out Group Activities to all members regularly.					
Define Goals.					
Identify potential members.					
Develop a library of materials.					
Collate and List Community and School Resources.					
Seek out individuals who have good rapport with school and community.					
Buy refreshments for meetings.					
Print up Group rationale, Goals, By-Laws and Schedule.					
Decide who can be members, e.g., sr. citizens, non-gifted parents, teachers, community artists, civic leaders, etc.					
Select method of Communicating.					
SUB-TOTAL					

	Have Done	Can Do	Would Do	Must Do	Priority Ranking
Write Rationale or Philosophy for Group.					
Include school board members and school administrators.					
Establish Group Organizational Structure.					
Schedule activities, e.g., speakers, movies, book & material reviews, workshops, etc; at least a year in advance.					
Plan for incorporating and other legal matters.					
TOTALS					

SCORE BY COLUMN:

HAVE DONE: ________

CAN DO: ________

WOULD DO: ________

MUST DO: + ________

TOTAL SCORE: ========

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS: Count up the number of marks in each column. Multiply the total number of marks in each column by the following weights:

For each "Have Done" score 4.

For each "Can Do" score 3.

For each "Must Do" score 2.

For each "Would Do" score 1.

Place the total score by column in the blanks to the left and add to get the Total Score.

SCORING INTERPRETATION

If your Total Score is 84 to 63 = The Parent Group should "go on the road" to show others what to do.

If your Total Score is 62 to 42 = The Parent Group is strong and healthy. You are moving in the right direction.

If your Total Score is 41 to 21 = The Parent Group is building. Lots of work needs to be done.

If your Total Score is 20 to 0 = The Parent Group needs lots of help. Start NOW!

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NETWORKING AND MENTORING:
RESOURCES FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

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INTRODUCTION

With education marching to the tune of "Back to the Basics" and as the missils of budget cuts assail gifted and talented programs; teachers, parents, and counselors are rightfully questioning whether gifted and talented education will survive. Many gifted and talented programs have been reduced or eliminated. As a result, the total responsibility for educating the gifted has been placed on teachers already over burdened by mainstreaming, increased instructional loads, and class size. Thus, in the eyes of many educators and school administrators, gifted and talented education is nice to talk about but unrealistic to implement given the present limitations and constraints of school districts.

Although there is a shortage of traditional resources necessary to support gifted and talented program efforts, it does not prevent us from developing and sustaining gifted and talented programs that are equally as good if not better than our previous efforts. Educators, administrators, and parents must examine non-traditional ways to command resources for the gifted and design new programs around the acquisition and utilization of these resources.

A wealth of resources exist in the communities surrounding our schools: craftsman, professionals, retired educators, businessmen, hobbyists, interest groups, art guilds, colleges, and volunteer organizations willing to donate resources. Unfortunately, very few schools have learned to access these free and available resources. The failure of our schools to utilize these valuable resources is due to a lack of knowledge of how to identify and access community resources, the absence of a system to organize resources and to disseminate information about the resources, and the resistance of administrators and educators to utilize community/non-traditional resources. Networking is an exceptional way to access and utilize resources and it provides the basis for the development of effective mentor programs. However, potential problems with network programs and the resistance of educators and administrators to utilize community resources must be examined and addressed before networking and mentoring programs can be successfully introduced into our school systems.

THE NETWORK CONCEPT

A network is a pattern of inner connecting lines or threads. In the case of a human network, the lines represent channels of resource exchange between people or organizations which have an interest in sharing resources. There are countless networks in our society which have been formed for just about every imaginable purpose: cooperative buying, professional development, international trade, self-help, exchange of information in science and business, personal development, and social action, for example.

Some very successful networks have been organized for the purpose of identifying and connecting people who want to learn, know, or do something with one another. For example, the Linkage is a computerized listing of national and international resource people which was started by Robert Theobald. People send in statements about their work and interests to the network center which are then collated and reproduced for redistribution to participants in the network. The People Index is a network in Fairfield, California organized for the purpose of helping "people find others with the same goals." This network connects resource people together who share a common purpose or wish to develop similar projects. If we apply these ideas to gifted and talented education, the purpose of establishing a network is to put gifted and talented students in contact with potential resource people and educational activities which exist reginally as well as nationally.

THE PURPOSE OF A NETWORK

Networks for the gifted and talented can serve a variety of purposes: to bring in additional and refreshing expertise into schools or classrooms to speak on a particular topic; to engage students in practical/applied learning activities; to help students learn skills not possible in the classroom; to provide students with individual instruction, support, guidance, or role models; to enable students to gain access to resources that the schools do not possess (e.g., technology, machinery, materials, instruments); to provide a structure where students apply concepts from the classroom to structured experiential learning situations; to expose students to a variety of occupations, to expand students work experiences; to help students become aware of newly developing careers; to help students clarify their career interests by trying out various jobs; and to help students learn some of the prerequisite skills for a vocation.

Hopefully educators will learn to use the resources of a network in a variety of ways. Varied use of the network will depend upon the recognition by teachers that the network can provide: a variety of ways to augment their curriculum, a variety of levels of educational opportunities and experience for students, and valuable individual instructional opportunities for students.

COMPONENTS OF AN EFFECTIVE NETWORK

There are three primary components to the development of a human resource network: (1) identification of people who have valuable skills, resources, knowledge; (2) inviting, encouraging, persuading individuals to become involved in the resource network; (3) developing a structure to organize the resources, to make the network information available to students; and to facilitate the use of network resources by students. Each of these stages can be approached in a multiplicity of ways.

Identification

There are a variety of ways to identify resource people once the purpose and target population of the network has been identified. Four basic ways to identify resource people are outlined below:

1. Locate potential resource people through communication with and referral from members in the selected locale, profession, organization. (The organizers of the network will probably be able to come up with a significant number of names and organizations to get the network started. Students, parents, teachers, administrators, and community members can all play a vital role in developing the network.)
2. Enlist the help of community leaders, professionals who are not organizers of the network to informally locate and refer potential resource people to the network organizers.
3. Advertise in organizational bulletins, newsletters, write brief articles for local newspapers and newsletters describing the network and the type of resource people desired. (There are many ways to get the word out to potential resource people that are both effective and inexpensive.)
4. Send a mailing to potential resource people that describes the purpose of the network and invite them to complete a questionnaire from which you can obtain the information you need to select resource people.

Most networks have informal selection criteria for determing who to include and exclude as resource members. What are the qualities and characteristics of resource people that you would like to participate in a network? For many networks, the only criteria for membership are "willingness to participate" and "identification of talent, abilities, or resources to be shared." However, educators must think beyond these criteria as the issue of legal liability arises when we involve students. Network organizers may need to consider factors such as credibility, reputation, and the ability of the resource person to communicate with and instruct students.

Getting Resource People Involved

The best way to enlist resource people is by direct contact; either by phone or meeting with them. It is often most effective to have someone, who personnally knows the resource person, make the initial contact and encourage the resource person to become involved in the network. However, direct contact is usually all that is needed. It has been my experience as well as the experience of many other educators, that community resource people are generally quite willing to participate and donate their time to programs of this nature.

Often the biggest problem that we encounter is that many potential resource people do not perceive themselves to be a "resource." It is surprising how frequently people fail to recognize their own talents and assets. It often requires some persuasion to convince them that they are qualified and that their skills are desirable and worth teaching to students.

Informal and direct contacts are often the most effective and efficient way to engage new resource people in the network. However, if you seek to include individuals who you know little about and who are difficult to contact but you think they would be good resource people, then a mailing (letter and questionnaire) will provide you with enough information for selection purposes and will give you an indication of their willingness to participate.

Structure of the Network

There are a number of variables/factors which will influence the structure or design of the network. For example, the purpose of the network will determine the type and scope of interactions between participants. Therefore, organizers should have a clear conception of the various ways they want students to use the network. In addition, the target population should be clearly identified. This may influence the number and type of people you select to be resource people. The breadth and range of resource that you would like to access should also be considered. In other words, do you want to have resource people from a wide variety of disciplines, and how far from your community can resource people still be utilized: local, national, international?

Determining the time and place students will meet with resource people is also a very crucial decision which will influence the structure of the network. There are many possibilities to consider. For instance, will you bring resource people into the school, during school, after school, or on weekends? Will students be allowed to interact with resource people in the community, during school, after school, on the weekends. All of the above, some of the above? Your choice of time will limit or expand the possibilities of resource people who will be able to participate in the program. For instance, some resource people will not be able to come to the school during work hours. In a similar way your choice of places will limit or expand the possibilities of what the resource people can teach or do with the students. For instance, some craftsman or professionals will require their facilities to conduct demonstrations or to instruct students on the use of particular equipment or instruments.

ORGANIZATION OF THE NETWORK

Information about the network can be organized in a variety of ways. a notebook, computer, bulletin board, file system, or person with an excellent memory can all serve as the organizing system. A notebook-person combination is an excellent framework for starting. A notebook is an easy format to use and adjust and it can be made accessable to the participants. A person who is really aware of the resources in the guide and who has contact with students and teachers will increase the probability of students and teachers using the network resources. It is also helpful to have someone organize the system and to file the entries during the initial phases of the network project until the participants learn to maintain the notebook. Listed below is one format for organizing a notebook index system.* The resource catagories are self explanitory.

RESOURCE NETWORK GUIDE FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

1. Introduction and philosophy behind the guide
2. Explanation of how to use and contribute to the guide
3. Index-subject catagories
4. Career-internship opportunities
5. Local resource people
6. National resource people
7. Student groups, clubs, organizations
8. Civic groups, clubs, organizations
9. College/university opportunities
10. Educational travel opportunities
11. Economic/material resources

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*GIFTS is currently developing a Resource Guide Notebook for the Gifted and Talented. It provides an excellent format for organizing network information. It also provides an excellent discussion of the philosophy behind the guide, an enlightening introduction, and a simple direction on how to use and contribute to the network. For further information contact GIFTS.

LEVELS OF RESOURCE EXCHANGE

The fundamental basis of a network is the sharing and exchange of resources between people. A network can provide students with opportunities for many different levels of exchange and interaction with resource people. An outline of potential levels of exchange with resource people is presented below.

Levels of Resource Exchange

1. Referral to another source/resource
2. Obtain general information
3. Exchange ideas
4. Receive feedback, enter into discussions about projects, ideas, etc.
5. Informal career/academic guidance
6. Supervision of work, instruction/demonstration of skills
7. Co-participation/co-creation of a project
8. Internship experience
9. Mentor relationship

THE MENTOR RELATIONSHIP: THE HIGHEST FORM OF NETWORKING

The mentor relationship represents the highest and most complex level of resource exchange between two individuals in a network and one of the most valuable relationships for students to develop. Many successful individuals attribute a substantial portion of their success to the guidance and support they received as a child or young adult from a mentor. The 1968 White House Task Force on the Gifted conducted interviews with some of the country's most gifted people to identify the major influences in their development. Almost all of these gifted people identified a mentor as the single most important factor contributing to their personal and professional success.

Educators generally define a mentor as a person who: has a special interest, skill, or talent which they share with a younger person who serves as a role model for the learner; is interested in the younger person beyond the immediate classroom environment; and who guides the learner towards rewarding experiences, solving problems, developing new skills, and establishing new relationships (U.S. Office of Education, 1979). The mentor, in essence, is concerned with fostering the protégé's cognitive, social, and affective development.

A protégé is someone engaged in learning from and working with a mentor. Typically, the protégé is younger than the mentor; however, the more important variable is that the protége desires to learn something from the mentor. Learning from the mentor may take the form of role modeling, skill building, or guided personal and career development.

The primary role the mentor plays in the protégé's development is "to be a transitional figure, one who fosters the young person's development from child-in-relation-to-parental-adults to adult-in-peer-relation-with-other-adluts" (Levinson, 1978a, p. 24). In other words, the mentor helps the adolescent perceive him/herself as part of the adult world through the mentor relationship. Gradually as the relationship develops and matures, the adolescent begins to see him/herself as a peer of the mentor.

The mentor can also perform the important developmental function of fostering the Dream in the child or adolescent. The Dream, according to Levinson, can either be a concrete or abstract goal of what one wants to do or be in life. In what ever way the individual conceives of his/her goal, the most important characteristic of the Dream is that it inspires and sustains the individuals in his/her pursuit towards attaining the goal. Most individuals in the early-adult transition period have a poorly articulated and ill-defined Dream (Levinson, 1978a). The mentor can play a significant role in the formation and clarification of the protégé's Dream.

Individuals who have developed a Dream in early adulthood often experience strong inner conflicts during the early adult transition period as their Dream comes into opposition with the newly internalized values and aspirations of their parents over career selection (Levinson, 1978b). Mentors involved with young adults experiencing these conflicts often provide an important source of personal support and convey a sense of confidence to the protégé that the Dream can be attained.

PUTTING THE NETWORK INTO ACTION

There are several things that you can do to increase your chances of developing and operating a successful network in your school. The enthusiastic presentation of the concept of networking and mentoring to school personnel and finding one or two teachers willing to carry out the plan is not sufficient to make the network operational. Tactful and judicious planning is necessary when any form of innovation is to be introduced into a complex system like a school. A number of enthusiastic network organizers have successfully identified and enlisted the cooperation of community resource people only to find that educators and administrators in their schools were unwilling to use the resources.

The ability to identify and involve significant people from your school and community in the network is critical to the success of the project. People involved in the development and organization of the network will be the ones most likely to use and promote the network. Conversely, people who see the idea as thrust upon them will be resistant to use or promote the network. Only you will be able to determine which people are needed to organize an effective network program based on your: past experience, analysis of school and community politics/needs, and your ideas on the type of network you would like to develop. However, you should involve at least one administrator, several teachers, parents, representatives of business and the professions and students.

The more people you engage in the initial phases of program development, the more likely they will help you later. This doesn't mean that everyone has to be involved in the planning sessions, but it is important that you ask for their input. Teachers and administrators need to feel a sense of ownership and believe they have played a significant part in the creation of a program taylored to the needs of their school.

Newtwork organizers should be on the alert for signs of unspoken but pervasive beliefs about education which may prevent or delay the development of a network. For instance, some administrators and teachers hold the belief that they aren't doing their job if they have to rely on outside resources. Therefore it is advantageous to think of strategies to counter this belief. Such as giving teachers and administrators the opposite message that they are doing their job when they access and utilize community resources. In order for this message to have any impact on teachers, it will at some point in time have to come from the school administrators.

Try to identify other unspoken myths that might prevent educators from using the network. Also, listen closely to criticisms of the network concept or reasons people express for not supporting the development of the network. Often if is possible to ask the people expressing the criticisms to help you solve the problems they have so clearly identified. Frequently, they will become the best advocates of the program.

It is advisable in some school systems to start small, and to slowly build the network. It will take time to convince some educators and administrators that it's alright to use community resources, that community resource people have something to offer, that community resource people can be trusted with their students, and that the community condones the network concept. There are many ways to start: (1) Have resource people give presentations at school. This will give the school personnel an opportunity to evaluate and to personnally interact with resource people. (2) Start your program with just a few students who you believe will make good use of the network or with students everyone has given up on, but who may benefit from interacting with resource people. It is important to demonstrate the success of your program in its' initial stages. Your success will be evaluated by the reaction of students, teachers, and community resource people. (3) Start a small summer network program. (4) Allow the network to operate on weekends. (5) Structure a class around the development and utilization of a network. These are just a few of the ways to start a network.

Organizers will also need to consider ways to develop a cost effective support base for the Network. The expense of a network will depend upon the scope of the structure you develop and the type of resources that are available to you. Effective networks can be developed and maintained with almost no capital investment. However, network organizers must be creative in gaining access to other resources.

For instance, community organizations and businesses once involved in the network are often willing to donate a wide variety of materials and resources that schools would traditionally have to purchase such as postage, printing and copying of newsletters, lab equipment, and paper. It may even be possible to arrange for businesses to help with transportation through their ride sharing programs and local delivery vehicles. Parents or volunteers can coordinate the organization of the network alleviating any additional demand on teachers and the need for paid staff. Organizers on the other hand should examine their school budgets to determine if money exists that could be used for the network or by the participants (e.g., class trip money).

Because of the additional resources that a network can harness for a school (i.e., its cost-benefit ratio),administrators are sometimes willing to allocate money for the maintenance of a network once its worth has been established. It's amazing to witness the influence network participants can have on administrative opinion.

Networking can form the basis of many different valuable educational programs which involve the community such as mentoring. Networking is a powerful concept and ultimately a way of bringing together a community of people from a wide range of occupations and walks of life who are invested in education. It has the potential of fostering school systems that again find their roots in the community and fostering communities that once again stand behind their schools.

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GIFTED AND TALENTED:
WHY THEY THINK, FEEL AND ACT
SO EXCITINGLY DIFFERENT

by:

Dennis H. Van Den Heuvel, Ph.D.
Donald M. Callahan

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History has acknowledged and idolized the accomplishments of talented persons. In our current time warp, anthrolopologists, psychologists, sociologists, and physiologists persist in the search for the key ingredients which comprise the truly gifted/talented individual.

As the search goes on, the literature is consistent in suggesting there is no mold into which the gifted and talented can be cast. Their behavior is often unpredictable because they constantly test the limits of their own potential and their environment.

Human intellectual, physical, social talents have always been measured by the relative view of the eye of the beholder, whether it be philosopher, physiologist, psychologist, spiritist, or anthropologist. Each identified gifted/talented individual regardless of the eye of the beholder, has proven to be unique, contingent upon the host of genetic, physical, and social cultural factors which influence development. The multiple functions of human knowledge coupled with social and cultural press make talent development at once both the source and product -- cause and the effect — of any culture.

The purpose of this paper is to partially summarize the Guidance Institute For Talented Students' 24 years of research into why young people identified as gifted and talented think, feel, and act so excitingly different. A major thrust of GIFTS research has been to underscore the unique reciprocal relationships between cognitive and affective characteristics in understanding the behavior of talented youngsters. The authors wish to encourage parents and educators to broaden their perspective on human talent and thereby serve more meaningful roles in fostering talent development.

THE MANY FACES OF HUMAN TALENT

Human talent defies definition and emerges where it will. The "inspirational moment," the "eureka" of human discovery often explodes upon the scene regardless of a specific culture's readiness to receive and cultivate it. The current culture, which likely played a role in developing the talent, further defines, refines, and utilizes talent. So it is that talent is defined in the "eye of the beholder" and his/her limited view of unlimited human potential.

The Anthropologist's (Lorenz, 1952 & 1966) view of talent is measured by ownership and ability to utilize ever more sophisticated survival skills as demanded by the present culture as well as the unique capability to project and cultivate future survival skills. Thus the anthropologist's criteria for the talented person include leadership, charisma, invention and prophecy. The measure of talent is performance within the culture's integrated repertoire of future directed survival skills.

Often the gifted/talented person is totally exploited by his/her culture or rejected as far too eccentric for the times. Many great talents have only been discovered after their deaths. In any generation only a very few individuals have the insight to create the future.

The physiologist suggests that superior human skills emanate from unique linkages in the human brain which enable much more efficient and effective brain usage in the performance of concrete and abstract human tasks.

Although neuro-psychologists have focused primarily on localization of specific cerebral functions, there is literature to suggest that gifted/creative persons exhibit at early ages unique brain hemisphere linkages enabling greater flexibility among specific hemispheric functions (Prentky, 1980). Such facility accounts for the superior cognitive and affective qualities observed in those considered gifted and talented. Brain function is not confined to socio-cultural gifted-talented norms. The possibilities of unique brain function in eminent persons may in some fashion account for their eccentric behaviors which seem to detract from their noted accomplishments and contributions to the culture.

Spiritists and Transcendentalists view human talent as an endowment from a transcendent force. Culture and religion are expected to monitor and integrate the endowment. The gifted person is a vehicle — or from biblical reference the "vessel" — of transcendent power in any one segment of history. Most gods and religious institutions acknowledge the expression of the transcendent force in select individuals within the particular spiritual persuasion. Unfortunately the "vessel" is afforded little control or responsibility for the expression of talent. Religious and cultural pressure usually require the transcendent person to repress individuality to enable the transcendent power or talent to emerge.

Developmental Psychologists view "gifted and talented" as a measure of observable intellectual functioning through a variety of learning tasks. The semantic of educational psychology centers on cognitive psycho-social developmental learning styles as measured by IQ and achievement of various learning tasks. Gifted and talented are those individuals whose behavior deviates significantly from the observable and measured norms. Norms have been generated on specific learning tasks (Binet, Wechsler), stages of intellectual development (Piaget, Vygotsky), combinations and levels of cognitive processes (Gilford), cognitive associations (Skinner), levels of social learning (Bandura).

Psychometrics has played a major role in the developmental psychologist's approach to identifying and educating gifted and talented persons. IQ is frequently used as the prime consideration in identifying talented persons for special educational programming.

Although intelligence testing has been widely used as an indicator of talent, the procedure has many drawbacks. As mentioned earlier there exists a reciprocal relationship between cultural norms for talent and those identified in any one culture. The norms of most psychometric measures are biased by culture and the ability of the individual to be tested through whatever sensory modes are required to successfully complete the test. GIFTS studies suggest that talent emerges in a variety of ways not easily tracked by psychometric devices. The influence of such factors as cultural diversity, preferential sensory access modes, and motivational forces make it difficult to identify the presence of giftedness/talent through psychometric means.

The clinical psychologist's view of talent centers on a combination of unique personality traits enabling the individual to be highly independent, socially compatible, and functional within his/her current society and culture. Psychologists have primarily sought to alleviate the personal/social problems of talented persons, the "fine line between genius and psychopathology." Counselors, psychologists, and psychiatrists focus on the talented person's ability to reconcile unique talents with what appears to be a very restricting socio-cultural environment. Perrone/Male (1981) reported biographical vignettes of 50-60 eminent persons in the arts, sciences and politics. Their summary suggests that the majority of gifted and talented persons profiled constantly struggled with the paradoxes created by their emerging talent, the expectations of others, and a variety of social, cultural, political, religious, and educational norms.

In summary, no one static perspective on human talent provides a definitive explanation of dynamic, multifaceted human potential. Our sophisticated philosophies and sciences, founded in history, are constantly amazed at further discovery of human talents which create our future.

DEFINITIONS OF GIFTED AND TALENTED

Giftedness is a valued commodity within the human economy. The average "person on the street" quite often runs the gamut of emotional responses (admiration to envy) when he/she encounters a unique quality in another person. Definitions of gifted/talented are as plentiful as the various perspectives on human talent.

The U.S. Office of Education (1972) defined gifted and talented children as "...those individuals identified by professionally qualitfied persons who, by virtue of outstanding abilities, are capable of high performance. These are children who require differentiated educational programs in order to realize their contribution to self and society.

Children capable of high performance include those with demonstrated achievement and/or potential ability in any of the following areas, singly or in combination:

1. General intellectual ability.
2. Specific academic aptitude.
3. Creative or productive thinking.
4. Leadership ability.
5. Visual and performing arts.
6. Psychomotor ability."

In the "eye" of the Anthropologist, Henry (1958) defined the gifted and talented child as "...one who shows consistently remarkable performance in any worthwhile line of endeavor."

Developmental Psychologists Fliegler and Bish (1959) stated: "the term 'gifted' encompasses those children who possess superior intellectual potential and functional ability to achieve academically in the top 15-20 percent of the school population; and/or talent of high order in such special areas as mathematics, science, expressive arts, creative writing, music, and social leadership; and a unique creative ability to deal with their environment."

Perrone/Male (1981) suggest that "talented individuals are those who evidence:

1. More effective behavior than their contemporaries.
2. Effective behavior results from:
    a. more efficient use of perceptual systems.
    b. more efficient use of conscious thought.
    c. more efficient transfer of data between conscious and subconscious.
    d. more extensive amounts of diversity of stored information.
    e. more efficient use of conscious and subconscious operations.
    f. more efficient use of behavior delivery systems.
    g. combinations of the above."

Newland (1981), summarizing 50 years of research, identified the following behavioral characteristics of giftedness:

1. "Pressing or pushing into the environment -- both physically and symbolically.
2. Discovering relationships amont things experienced.
3. Remembering what has been experienced, facilitated undoubtedly by perceiving relationships within which things could be remembered.
4. Being motivated (the rewarding effect of discovery).
5. Focusing or concentrating upon a particular line of behavior."

Each of the definitions captures a slice of what to be uniquely talented truly implies. To quote Abe Lincoln, each definition "mutually excells the other" in appropriately defining human talent.

WHY GIFTED/TALENTED THINK, FEEL, AND ACT SO EXCITINGLY DIFFERENT

GIFTS' 25 years of research has produced a taxonomy of cognitive, affective, and behavioral characteristics commonly observed in talented youngsters. The nearly 4000 identified talented youngsters observed and counseled through the Institute exhibit various combinations of cognitive and affective traits accounting for individually unique developmental styles. Included in GIFTS studies were talented achievers, underachievers, and culturally diverse groups.

The presence of unique cognitive and affective traits in no way allows one to predict the behavior patterns of talented persons. The reciprocal relationship among traits, and the individual's family educational, social, political, cultural, economic mileu makes it impossible to stereotype the gifted/talented (Perrone/Male, 1981). GIFTS has discovered gifted/talented in conforming roles (talented highly moral, high achiever) as well as in highly ideosyncatic non-conforming roles (underachiever, revolutionary, amoral, anti-religious).

Illustration A profiles the thinking and feeling styles of gifted and talented persons within the framework of the various perspectives of human talent discussed earlier.

Thinking

In the "eye" of the Physiologist and Anthropologist, talented and creative persons appear to exhibit unique right-left brain hemispheric bridging (Prentky, 1980). This bridging is akin to certain abnormal brain functions, thus the difficulty confusing genius with brain disorder and insanity.

Ansubel-Sullivan-Ives (1980) - examining optimal genetic physiological conditions for learning cite unique physical sensory processing as a psychophysical trait exhibited by highly functioning persons. Enhanced sensory processing is a key enabling factor in learning.

The innate assertiveness to learn often observed in talented persons appears to be both a psychophysical and learned phenomenon. Lorenz (1966) suggests aggression and assertiveness to be genetic fine-tuning for superior constructive/distinct functioning. GIFTS ongoing research attests to the fact that talented youngsters exhibit an unexplained incessant drive to think and learn.

In the "eye" of the developmental psychologist talented persons function at superior levels over a wide variety of intellectual

ILLUSTRATION A

THINK	FEEL
I Physical/Anthropological	I Physiological/Anthropological
A Unique Brain Functioning	A Heighten capacity for self-awareness
B Multimodal sensory access and rate	B Assertive/Aggressive
C Innate assertiveness to learn	C Risk taking
II Psychological	II Psychological
A IQ-(memory, association, abstract reasoning)	A Self Concept-Confidence
B Higher potential for conditioning, problem solving, goal directed, incidental & imitation learning.	B Internal locus of control
C Superior symbolical intelligence (Language) flexibility, unique associations & relationships.	C Emotive
	D Self-motivated
III Transcendent	III Transcendent
A Creative, Curious, Inventive, Imaginative.	A Sense of humor (friendly-hostile)
B Futuristic	B Sense of idealism & justice
C Greater time Perspective (Sense of mortality)	C Advanced social & moral sense

and social traits as measured and monitored by psychometrics. Terman and his associates (1925) conducted longitudinal studies of those talented persons with high IQ's. Ansubel-Sullivan-Ives (1980), summarizing 40 years of research on psychobiological traits, suggest a taxonomy of genetic and environmental predispositions in higher degrees — quantitatively and qualitatively. Included are: the capacity for superior memory, abstract reasoning, problem solving, goal direction, incidental/imitation learning, and superior symbolical intelligence characterize talented persons. The transcendentalist's "eye" of talent includes a rather ethereal group of cognitive traits. They defy discrete definitions and little is known about their cognitive origins. Torrance (1962), Treffinger (1980), and Gilford (1979) have elaborated on cognitive correlates of creativity. Cognitive fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration appear to be key components in creative behavior.

GIFTS research resulting from numerous interviews and counseling sessions with talented youngsters suggest them to have two unique time perspective traits: one is futuristic and prophetic; the other is a sense of the temporality and of their own mortality. The talented person's incessant urgency is to create the future as well as defy mortality by effective time use.

Feel

The talented person's repertoire of cognitive traits has unique affective (feeling) dimensions. It is in the affective areas that talented persons frequently clash with social, institutional, cultural norms and standards.

Emerging from the physiological/anthropological perspective, talented persons have a heightened self-awareness at early ages (Clark, 1980). They tend to be assertive and aggressive and oftentimes are willing to take more risks in search of questions and solutions.

Confidence best describes the psychologist's view of affective traits characterizing talented persons. Undaunted confidence to learn complex realities, self-motivation, and internal locus of control, have been found to be stable traits in both talented achievers and underachievers (GIFTS, 1981). Confidence to control self and environment breeds a strong internal reinforcement cycle fostering use of superior thinking and feeling skills.

Transcendent affective traits tend to be as elusive as cognitive traits. Talented persons usually orient to the extremes on social, political, religious, and moral issues. They tend to want immediate solutions to complex ideological issues. An incisive sophisticated sense of humor is a common trait.

Act

The unique repertoire of thinking and feeling traits of talented persons are lived out in individually and excitingly unique fashion. GIFTS (1981) has identified two key integrating factors which exert strong influence on the developing talent:

1. Family support systems

   Dependence on parent(s) facilitating socialization, identification and internalization of cultural norms.

2. Expectations - relative to talented person's perceptions of family, school, social, religious, and cultural norms.

Van Den Heuvel (1982) and Perrone and Van Den Heuvel (1981) have generated a taxonomy of behavior patterns commonly expressed by talented persons. The taxonomy is not a definitive list but may expand parent, teacher, counselor views of both the sources and expressions of human talent.

Behavior Patterns of Gifted and Talented Persons

Viewed as positive and system supporting:

1. Conforming high achievers - enthusiastically get school work done ahead of classmates and with relative ease.

2. Assume leadership positions in all curricular and extracurricular involvements.

3. Socially adept and motivated at earlier ages.
4. Enthusiastic problem solvers.
5. Exemplify creative approaches to subjects in school.
6. Are effective planners and goal setters.
7. Usually perform well in a variety of academic and extracurricular areas.
8. Adapt and learn through a variety of teaching and parenting styles.
9. Self-motivating whatever assignments are given.
10. Are pleasantly idealistic - dreamers and prophets.
11. Have a sense of "family" and "group."

Viewed as negative and system disrupting:

1. Boredom and impatience with the limits on learning.
2. Social clumsiness in attempting to relate self knowledge of advanced learning skills with seeming limitations in teachers, parents, and classmates.
3. Taking on too many projects at one time without knowing how to complete them.
4. Dominating discussions with information and endless questions.

5. Seemingly disrespectful of authority and educational, school, and cultural norms.

6. Resentful of accountability to learning.

7. Demand recognition for accomplishments - prefer private praise to public accolades.

8. Use keen sense of humor positively and negatively.

9. Isolate from classmates and possible friends - use intellectual ability to suppress socialization with family and classmates.

10. Confused by multipotentiality - unsure of future educational and career decisions.

11. Intellectually restless, not satisfied with present understanding, seeking to make finer discriminations and broader, more encompassing generalizations, often departing from the classroom schedule or agenda.

12. Physically restless, often fine motor coordination and attention span lagging behind the child's conceptualization level, resulting in impatience and frustration relative to attending to the task at hand.

13. Intellectually dominates peers seeking to establish a mentor relationship with younger children, experiencing frustrations when others do not comprehend as readily or as conclusively as they do.

14. May experience frustration from informational overload when there is no regulatory system such as values or an opportunity to test usefulness or inputs.

15. May confuse having a lot of information (memory) with wisdom (knowing the value and usefulness of information).

16. Tendency to be attracted to authoritarian persons or experts in an almost unquestioning manner.

17. Exhibit stress and anxiety related to the imbalance as discrepancy between advanced conceptual develpment and more typical physical and social development increases. Attempts at stress reduction often expressed in bizarre, deviant, or unachievement, behavior.

18. More aware than peers of death (finiteness), which in turn provides the individual a time perspective which is qualitatively different than their more present-time oriented peers. leading to communication problems.

19. Conceptual or intellectual differences with peers may lead to social isolation which often eliminates having someone with whom to discuss feelings of being different, feeling dominated, or wanting independence.

A COROLLARY: PARENTING, TEACHING, COUNSELING TECHNIQUES TO ENCOURAGE TALENT DEVELOPMENT

I. Practical Parenting Techniques to Meaningfully Guide Your Child's Developing Talents:

a. Commit yourself to be involved in the social learning of your child.

b. "Guide" rather than "Direct" your child.

c. Recognize each child as unique — do not use one child as a lever on other children.

d. Realize that the school and teachers are only "one" resource in your child's social learning.

e. Hold your child responsible for learning products rather than for how he/she might compare with other students.

f. Help your child understand their responsibility to their talent.

g. Allow your child to assist in setting learning goals.

h. Teach your child basic problem solving skills — ask questions, look for resources, produce a product, share learning with others, etc.

i. Cooperate with teachers and administrators.

j. Consider the "tutor" "mentor" model.

k. Realize that you as parents are the primary organizer of your child's learning.

l. Be prepared to provide your child access to learning resources — transportation to library, special learning programs, etc.

m. Request ongoing parent in-service from the school in order to learn more about the development styles of talented children.

n. Recognize how other family members influence the social style of your talented child(ren).

o. Rewards should be for your child's personally meaningful accomplishments — not for any fame or fortune gained by parents and other family members.

p. Mastery of learning tasks should override the need to compete with others.

II. Practical Teaching Strategies and Dispositions:

a. Reconcile with the child his/her motives for learning.

b. Teach the child a personal responsibility for learning.

c. Group discussion on mutually selected topics — culminating in a group member assuming leadership for projects and outcomes emerging from the discussion.

d. Simulation - i.e., personalizing student involvement in a learning area — generate responsibility for learning.

e. Research activities involving hypothesis testing — creative problem generating and solving.

f. Continuous monitoring of progress — student analysis of the learning process.

g. Field dependent learning opportunities - i.e., outcomes require a sensitivity to a variety of environmental facilitators and constraints.

h. Product oriented learning activities utilizing one or many disciplines.

i. Allow the student to create problems (projects) which need solutions within specific discipline areas.

j. Teach basic planning and organizational skills to process content in various disciplines.

k. Invite research projects including other school and family resources.

l. Instruction in goal setting, decision-making, logical processes.

m. Discuss feelings (affective dimensions) about learning with youngsters.

n. Acceptance of unusual products resulting from talented student learning. Products often appear unrelated to specific subject area.

o. Demonstrate a personal understanding of possible reasons for non-direction.

p. Bring parents and teacher colleagues in as cooperators in generating self-directed learning.

q. Acknowledge the limitations of the age-grade level lock-step curriculum.

r. Expect the student to be responsible for learning objectives whatever the agreed upon method.

s. Share your own learning successes and their applications to life.

t. Lead in learning rather than dictate how and what must be learned.

u. Taxonomy of teacher traits selected by gifted/talented students which are conducive to self-directed learning in students:

1. versatility of interests
2. creativeness & originality
3. sense of humor
4. physical energy
5. sensitive
6. patient
7. curiosity
8. knowledge of the subject
9. ego strength
10. self-confidence
11. love of learning
12. intellectual curiosity
13. personal standards for excellence

Summary

The mystery and mystique of human talent will continue simply because talent expression is always future directed, and our appreciation of talent is limited to imperfect hindsight and analysis. Furthermore, our tools to measure the many facets of human talent vary, and are, in each time warp, quite archaic. We are only able to appreciate the "raw stuff" of talent subsequent to contamination by the "eye of the beholder" and a variety of physical, social, and cultural factors. Nevertheless, careful research has enabled GIFTS and others to capture, in the current fleeting moment, a number of the intellectual and social dispositions of talented persons which seem to account for why they think, feel, and act so excitingly different. Parenting, teaching, and guiding talented persons requires a commitment to understand and feel comfortable with their unconventional, often provocative styles. We must allow talented persons to constructively deviate from the confining norms which govern and protect our traditional family, educational, and social institutions. Furthermore, each of us must acknowledge that talent emerges where it will, regardless of the confines of our sciences and philosophies. Each human person has an innate mission to discover, acknowledge, and foster talent in the advancement of the family of man. Hopefully GIFTS' and similar efforts encourage parents, teachers, and counselors in particular to take this mission very seriously.

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MEETING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE ATHLETICALLY GIFTED STUDENT

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INTRODUCTION

When speaking of gifted and talented individuals, we often focus on those individuals who are gifted intellectually, artistically, or verbally. An area of giftedness that is frequently ignored is psychomotor exceptionality. Individuals manifesting psychomotor exceptionality often demonstrate their ability through athletics.

Athletics, in our culture, is viewed differently than other areas of giftedness and youngsters who show promise in this area are usually encouraged by society to excel. Often overlooked, however, are other developmental aspects of talented athletes. We will examine some of these other developmental areas with specific attention given to the educational development of gifted athletes.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

As far back as Plato and Aristotle's time in ancient Greece, the concept of 'mind/body' has been subject of scholarly thought. Throughout time this mind/body relationship has reflected the attitudes of man about education and what we call today, athletics.

Plato's era paid great attention to the concept of a well balanced mind and a well tuned body, emphasizing the importance of both. With the onset of Roman domination the mind/body concept evolved into an emphasis on "winning." The dualism of education and athletic performance was lost. An athletic contest, gladiators for example, were fights to the death. The competitive spirit, involvement of the mind as well as the body, had changed to a deadly "war-like" physical combativeness.

During the middle ages, athletic "body" activity came to a halt, except when coupled with a military act, such as fencing, riding and javelin. Education and sport activity were not to be associated. Rennaissance life re-introduced the importance of mind/body activity. As cited in Eitzen & Sage (1978), a Czechoslovakian scholar, Comenius, saw a child's day as having three parts (1) sleep; (2) intellectual development; and (3) physical recreation. He also postulated that as the human soul is nourished through books, so must the body be nourished through movement. Pestalozzi, a Swiss scholar, suggested that exercise contributed in a positive way to what today would be called "sound emotional adjustment" or "mental hygiene."

Sport in the United States has it's origins in Colonial life. Such activities as shooting matches, footraces and wrestling were popular sources of entertainment. As the population increased, sport took on new dimensions. The 1800's saw the emergence of "polite society" sporting activities: lawn tennis, croquet, golf, polo and yachting. The rising standard of living, the urbanization of man and the extension of leisure time helped the 1900's become a boon for sports activities. James Bryce, in 1905 quoted a British observer of the American scene:

> . . . (Sport) occupies the minds not only of the youth at the universities, but also of their parents and of the general public. Baseball matches and football matches excite an interest greater than any other public event except the Presidential election, and that comes only once in four years . . . The American love of excitement and love of competition has seized upon these games.

Much of the modern research in education and athletics has centered on the effects of athletic participation on academic success. Most of this research is an outgrowth of Coleman's (1961) study in which he stated that participation in any extra-curricular activity, including athletics, took time and energy away from study that could be better spent on academic pursuits. However, Haerle (1975), Phillips (1971), Picou (1974), Schafer (1970), and Rehberg (1968), and found that students who were involved in athletics had higher grades than their non-athletic counterparts. This was especially true among boys from lower socioeconomic backgrounds lacking college pre-disposing factors. Haerle states:

> "In sum, athletic participation appears to be solidly associated with better academic performance, high educational and occupational aspirations, and improved social and interpersonal skills."

Hanks (1976) found that athletics neither added nor detracted from the students' academic success. Hauser (1978) states that athletes are better students at the beginning of high school but that their academic success decreases as they progress through high school, thus supporting Coleman's original thesis. Hauser also found an indirect relationship between perceived social status and academic success as measured by grades. Athletes with high status had lower grades than athletes with less status. Tannenbaum (1961), conducted a study that looked at the generation of status for males via athletics and scholarship. A New York City high school was studied, six hundred and fifteen juniors were polled on the following categories of male students: brilliant versus average, studious versus nonstudious, and athletes versus nonathletes. The following is their ranking of preferences from most to least acceptable:

1. Brilliant nonstudious athlete
2. Average nonstudious athlete
3. Average studious athlete
4. Brilliant studious athlete

5. Brilliant nonstudious nonathlete
6. Average nonstudious nonathlete
7. Average studious nonathlete
8. Brilliant studious nonathlete

Interesting patterns emerge from this study, the athlete is valued over the nonathlete and a brilliant athlete is valued over a studious athlete.

In a slightly different vein, Bend (1977), Harris (1978), Snyder (1972), and Spady (1970) looked at other aspects of athletic participation. Bend examined the effects of salient support groups on the athlete's attitutes towards academics. He writes:

> "Scholastic success cannot become relevant unless the athlete's reference groups have proacademic norms and values. 'Proacademic' here refers to the development in the individual of an awareness of the importance of higher education, and of securing reasonable goals .... In the absence of strong anti-academic pressures from salient groups and for as long as the athlete wishes to continue to secure rewards for athletic performance, he will tend to accept the shared expectations of his reference group."

Snyder discusses the relationship of the high school coach and the athlete. He found that high school basketball coaches have a significant effect on athletes when advising them about future educational and occupational goals. Snyder writes:

> "For many athletes, the high school coach embodies all three types of reference groups; he provides normative expectations, a role model and he promotes value orientations the player uses as guides for his behavior."

Harris and Spady both discuss the effects of failure in athletics. Spady states that participation in high school athletics often inflates the students' peer status and future aspirations without giving them requisite skills needed to maintain this status and achieve goals at the college level. He recommends that athletes also participate in extracurricular activities which foster service and leadership. Harris discusses the idea that often athletes derive their identity from their sport. When this happens and the athlete fails, self esteem can be destroyed. Other than these studies, little has been done in the area of assessing social and emotional needs of athletes outside an athletic setting.

METHODS USED IN THIS STUDY

In an effort to gather relevant information concerning educational needs of athletically gifted students, interviews were conducted with college students on football scholarships to find out their views of their athletic and educational careers to date. Those interviewed were six sophomore scholarship football players at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Students were chosen at random from the available population. Four white and two black student athletes were interviewed. Economic background and original community size varied greatly adding to the uniqueness of each student athlete.

A semi-structured interview was conducted which was designed to allow the student to elaborate on any subject within the interview. Each interview was tape recorded. Students were asked to detail athletic and educational histories, academic, athletic, and career goals they held in the past, and their present goals for each of these areas. Also, they were asked about various support systems and how these systems affected them. They were asked to assess their athletic and academic performance compared to teammates and classmates and to discuss to what they attributed their athletic and academic performance. This latter question permitted us to compare our results with that of Roberts (1979).

This study was designed as a preliminary to future studies. It was designed to allow these student athletes to reflect on their past and present careers and to verbalize those things which detracted and added to their lives as students and as athletes. No statistical analysis was planned. What is presented are some general ideas about educational, social and emotional needs of gifted athletes in one line of athletic endeavor.

RESULTS

Athletic participation for our groups of students began approximately in the fourth grade (9-10 years old) and all were involved in more than one sport. By high school, they participated in 2 - 3 sports, usually a fall and a spring sport. Their athletic involvement was year round.

They varied in how they viewed their academic performance in high school. The one dominant theme about their school experience was that sports made everything else easier to take and more worthwhile. When asked what their favorite part of the school day was, they all responded "the end of the day - PRACTICE."

All of the students felt their best subject and the ones they liked most in high school were math classes. Half of them are now taking math at the college level and the others say they are avoiding it. The courses they liked and did well in tended to be taught by a favorite teacher and/or coach. The two black students had high school teachers that were essentially mentors. They have both maintained contact with their coaches, calling them for advice and guidance even now. The white students were either well known by teachers because of the small size of their school or regarded as just another student because of large size of their school. There were no particularly close relationships with teachers. All the students stated that their teachers expected as much from them academically as they did from the other students in their classes. The two black students made a special effort NOT to look like an athlete in class or draw attention to that fact (no letter jackets, always dressed neatly).

Half the students were involved in extracurricular activities such as National Honor Society, talent shows, chorus, Future Farmers, and refereeing. The others were strictly involved in their sport. Their academic goals were externally motivated; they did what they did for either: (1) their parents, or (2) to get into college. Specific goals beyond going to college did not exist.

The parents of the students were all very influential yet not demanding or pushy. They all tended to stress the academics over athletics but did not down play their pride in the student's athletic abilities. Many required study time before athletic participation or free time. The students in general felt comfortable with the double emphasis and did comment they were responsible to make sure there was time for both study and sports.

Coaches had little or not input in the students' academic life. The one exception was when they got into trouble, the coach would definitely deal with them. The coach had some influence when it came time to choose a college in terms of recruiting offers. They had input and influence when it came to the athletic perspective. One student had a coach who talked to him about going to play professional ball, emphasizing the necessity to go to college first. The obvious gap in this influence is that they advised them into college situations yet few, if any coaches dealt with the academics that would help them get into college and remain in college.

Views of the guidance office and school counselor were split. Three students never saw their counselor and the remaining three saw them to plan the logistics for going to college. The students did not use the guidance staff to choose a major area of study or think about where they would like to be post-university, post-football. A few mentioned they could have been better prepared for the intense level of work expected at the university level. They did see this as a counseling function, one not dealt with.

When asked why they decided to attend college it was unanimous that they wanted to get "good jobs", be able to support themselves, and make something of themselves. For the black athletes it is truly a "way out." Their decision appears to be more internally motivated, for the "self" and not for a parent or coach. The students generally made the decision to go to college in early-mid high school years and made the decision with the help of a parent. Four of the six students talked to their coach about which recruiting offer to take. Two of the six students would NOT have gone to college if a scholarship had not been available. Two would have gone to a smaller school, closer to home.

All of these student athletes were recruited by ten or more universities.

Two black students and one white student were recruited by 50+ schools (a combination of letters and home visits).

Did athletics have an effect on their high school and college education? All students responded that it is and was a positive factor. The predominant theme was that athletics motivated them academically. One student felt he would have quit school by the 8th grade without athletics. He is now very pleased to be in college. One detraction of athletic participation they all mentioned was that sports take so much time and thus it is difficult to be a really good student and be an athlete.

Academic goals of these sophomores are fairly short term: such as getting into the Business school or achieving a 2.5 grade point average. Three of them just want to graduate. Long term career goals are varied and unspecific: the pros or a "good job". This response is predictable considering they all have 2 - 2 1/2 years before graduation.

Up to this point the students were talking about the nuts and bolts of being a student and being an athlete. When friends, peers, cliques and teammates were brought up, they had a lot to say. The "dumb jock" syndrome was a topic they all addressed. In high school they were students and friends, in addition to being athletes. Now in college they feel stereotyped and judged solely as athletes. All the students tended to have fellow athletes of the same sport as friends. This may have influenced their feelings of not being stereotyped in high school. They saw themselves as leaders, many being captain of their teams at one point in their high school career. Though all attempted to maintain a "student" image they all felt the need to perform to their best ability athletically. The stated athletic goal of all six students was to be the "BEST", to be number one.

An interesting connection appeared when they talked about the cliques or groups that existed in their high schools. The connection has to do with their views of the mind/body concept and the values they have chosen for themselves. These students recognized two basic cliques in their high schools: (1) the athletes, "jocks", and (2) the smokers/drinkers. They all saw themselves as members exclusively of the former group with little intra-group participation. The emphasis of sound mind, sound body seems to remain as a social more for student athletes. The activities of the "party" group seem to be in direct conflict with the values the athletes live with.

Finally, students were asked to indicate to what they attributed their athletic and academic performance using Robert's (1979) model of causal attributions in athletics (Fig. 1) and Weiner's (1974) model of locus of control for academic attribution (Fig. 2). It has been found that students attribute their academic success to ability, ease of task, effort and luck. Ability and ease of task are stable factors, while effort and luck are unstable. Students who attribute their academic performance to task difficulty or luck have an external locus of control. Athletic attribution varies from this slightly, in that other factors are considered such as coaching and practice level. Also, ability may be an unstable factor in athletic performance. The numbers in the corners of each figure indicate the number of students whose responses fell into each category.

The results indicate that the majority of these students' attribution for their academic and athletic performance is internal, that is, they feel responsible. For athletic performance, responsibility was split between stable and unstable factors while for academic performance the majority indicated that locus of control was internal.

It is apparent from these results that most of these students felt that they only did well in either area when they worked hard. One of the six stated that he did well academically and athletically because of his ability.

DISCUSSION

Our discussions with the students indicate that athletics had a large impact on their academic lives. Aside from the fact that many of them complained of the time commitment involved, they all felt that athletics had a positive affect on their academic success. Many of them stated that they got better grades during the times they were actively involved in a sport than they did in the off-season. In spite of these positive effects, one-half of the students we spoke with were not prepared for college. It was not something that they had thought about until they began to see the possibility of an athletic scholarship.

Both authors have spent the past year as counselors and academic advisors at the Student Affairs Office in the Athletic Department of the University of Wisconsin-Madison. The patterns that were observed in the interviews seem to be consistent with observations of other male athletes in many different scholarship sports. Many scholarship athletes do not think about attending college until they are offered a scholarship. Other students plan on attending college anyway and the scholarship just makes it easier financially.

Those students who are not prepared for college are at a decided disadvantage when they enter. As a result of the time constraints placed on the student due to athletic practices and game schedules, studying must be done as efficiently and effectively as possible. Students who enter a university with deficiencies in reading ability and lack of study skills, have difficulty succeeding as students. However, attendance at a university and academic success are often necessary to furthering athletic goals and careers.

The students we spoke with had several ideas on how they could have been better prepared for higher education. All felt that it was important for coaches, teachers and parents to demand academic excellence. Just as they are pushed to their limits athletically, they also felt they should be pushed to their limits academically. One student made the analogy that a class should be like a team. If the coach singles out one or two of his best players and pushes them, but not the rest of the team, the team loses. In class, if the teacher only pushes one or two students, the class loses. You cannot win unless you demand that everyone on the team give 100%.

Looking at the attribution data that was collected, the majority of the students felt that their academic and athletic performance was usually based on their own effort. While effort is an internal factor, it is also unstable. Effort is demanded by coaches and the student athlete has learned to respond successfully to this. While demanding 100% academic effort may be ineffective with some students, it may be effective with student athletes who have learned to work in a high pressure system. While many athletes have the ability and desire to succeed, they also admit that it is easier to not always put out as much as they should and they often need someone behind them demanding more.

Another area that could be helpful to the student athlete is more open communication between coaches and guidance counselors. It is not always apparent if an athlete is going to be recruited. Often times, it is not known until the athlete is actually recruited. This is often due to the fact that the athlete does not physically mature until he/she is older. However, as soon as a coach thinks that a student has a strong chance of being recruited, this information should be passed along to the guidance counselor so appropriate academic planning can take place.

One student we spoke with said he wished that someone had explained to him what college would be like so that he would have been more prepared. He really did not know what to expect from college academically. A group session designed to acquaint students with what college will be like may be useful to all students planning to attend college, not just athletes.

Students who do not think about or decide to go to college until junior or senior year are usually the least prepared to attend college. A student who is less academically prepared but plans on accepting an athletic scholarship should be given remedial help in reading, math, English, study skills and test taking skills. A student who we did not interview, who is currently a sophomore, did not decide to attend college until his junior year. At that time he was not academically prepared to attend a university. The Guidance office at his school worked with him and several other students on a weekly basis preparing them for the academic demands of a large university by teaching him study skills, test taking skills and reading. The student stated that this experience was extremely helpful to him and was instrumental to his current academic success.

FIGURE 1

Robert's model of causal attributions in athletics.

	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
STABLE	Ability 1	Coaching 2
UNSTABLE	Effort Psychological Factors Unstable ability Practice 3	Luck Task difficulty Teamwork Officials 0

FIGURE 2

Weiner's model of locus of control (academic).

	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
STABLE	Ability 1	Ease of task 1
UNSTABLE	Effort 4	Luck 0

CONCLUSION

While athletic ability is an aspect of giftedness, it is unique in many ways from other aspects of giftedness. The exceptional athlete is highly valued in our society. Because of this, children are often encouraged to develop their athletic abilities to the fullest extent possible. Schools and communities provide opportunities at all levels for children to develop their talents. For those individuals who demonstrate ability in most any team sport, social and economic status provides few barriers to develping skills and pursuing future opportunities in their specific sport. For individuals whose talents lie in individual sports, economics become more of a barrier since individualized instruction is needed. For the exceptionally talented athlete, financial obligations can be worked out. The rewards offered by society for being a star athlete are many at all levels of competition ranging from publicity to huge monetary gains at the professional level. As a result, children who are athletically gifted are given the opportunity to explore and develop their abilities in greater depth than children demonstrating talents in other areas.

With the great intensity experienced in the area of athletics, children often ignore the academic sides of their lives. Many have visions, which are encouraged by parents and coaches, of becoming a professional athlete. This is particularly prevalent in the area of major team sports. In this light, academics become seemingly unimportant. While the dream of professional athletics need not be discouraged, it must be tempered with reality. Very few individuals actually make it into the pros. Even the extremely talented face stiff competition for the few opportunities available. There is also the constant threat of a disabling injury. Even if one actually makes it to the pros, his/her career is destined to be a short one. Because of these considerations, the talented athlete, possibly even more than those gifted in other areas, must keep their educational and career options as open as possible.

It is imperative for coaches, parents, and educators to help the gifted athlete recognize and meet his/her educational needs, even if athletes themselves are unaware of them. Because children are often blinded by their dreams, it is the responsibility of the significant adults in their lives to encourage both their athletic pursuits and their educational development.

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GROUP COUNSELING:
CREATING A GIFTED AND TALENTED PEER COMMUNITY

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INTRODUCTION

Social isolation has often been seen as a characteristic of the gifted and talented (Hollingsworth, 1942; Newland, 1976; Roe, 1952; Sheldon, 1959). The absence of peers with whom these students can relate can interfere with their social and emotional development, especially during adolescence when identity formation is largely dependent on peer interaction and support (Erikson, 1968). School counseling can provide opportunities for students to meet their social interaction need by helping create an adolescent gifted and talented peer community through group counseling. In this paper, group counseling will be described as an effective method for bringing together students who share common interests, attitudes, and comparable levels of cognitive complexity. The group would help "members form relationships with one another that are direct, purposeful, and invested with feeling" (Shaffer & Galinsky, 1974, p. 37). Through these relationships the gifted and talented would learn from one another and gain a needed sense of belonging. The discussion that follows will describe some sources of social isolation and how, through the learning experienced in the group processes, a gifted and talented peer community can be created in the schools.

SOCIAL ISOLATION

The gifted and talented comprise a small percentage of the total school population, and consequently they tend to feel isolated and develop patterns of non-communication (Newland, 1976). My assumption is that the gifted and talented are a special group and therefore both view themselves and are viewed by others as separate and different. Some differences are a result of a precocious intelligence reflected in behaviors, interests, and capabilities which are at variance with the mainstream school population. The gifted and talented do not readily find classmates with whom they can share ideas, feelings, or concerns, and the lack of positive encounters leads to frustration and social isolation.

Although the lack of appropriate peer relations resulting from differences with others contributes to social isolation, gifted and talented attitudes toward social interactions further exacerbates their isolation. Gifted and talented students often appear driven to perform or achieve at unrealistic standards of excellence which sometimes do not allow for feelings of satisfaction or accomplishment (Clark, 1979). The nature of these unrealistic expectations is an unattainable perfectionism that can result in lower self-concept (Clerk, 1979) and a kind of defensive elitism. The elitism is frequently manifested in haughtiness, arrogance, and internal monologues concerning the stupidity and lack of understanding in others. By expecting others to meet their standards, the gifted and talented frequently end up dissatisfied in their social encounters. Social isolation, therefore, becomes a cross to bear from one's perfectionism and specialness.

If the gifted and talented do not see how they contribute to their dissatisfying social interactions, the possibility for ameliorating their social isolation is limited. Without a peer group in which they can interact, there is little chance to gain awareness of how their attitudes effect their behaviors. By maintaining perfectionism, they will continue to lack self-acceptance and fail to accept others. They will remain alienated until they can begin to feel a sense of belonging and commitment to a group (Hansen et. al., 1976; Yalom, 1975). With a sense of belonging comes the realization that one is accepted as a person of value which serves to enhance self-awareness and the motivation to change (Hansen et. al., 1976). By becoming aware of one's self-defeating and isolating perfectionism, the gifted and talented can begin to explore new ways of perceiving themselves and others.

GROUP PROCESSES: LEARNING IN THE COMMUNITY

In the counseling group, the gifted and talented are brought together "in a small community of peers" for the purpose of "personal growth and improved interpersonal relationships" (Gazda, 1971, p.44). The above goals are worked towards through the processes that occur in the group. These processes are defined as "the events in the sessions themselves" (Berkovitz, 1972, p.20). The learning that occurs in the group processes differs from traditional classroom learning in that:

1. Knowledge of self and interactions in the group are the immediate focus of the learning.
2. Teaching and learning are shared so that all group members have equal opportunity to give and receive information.
3. The major learning problems include communication (increased understanding), involvement (finding a satisfactory level of participation), and risk-taking (being self-directed) (South, 1972).

Individual learning in the group entails a commitment to working towards individual and group goals in a spirit of cooperation, trust, and support. In fact, individual goals become so integrated with group goals that the communal effort "is better than any one member could have produced" (South, 1972, p. 137).

The leader's role in facilitating learning in the group involves a willingness to share responsibility with group members and also, at the same time, to model and reinforce attitudes and behaviors that work towards achieving group goals. The group leader must have a meta-awareness of individual members and group processes that allows for a respect and understanding of the social isolation that the gifted and talented experience as well as a belief in the importance of social interactions. The leader must, therefore, feel a sense of security and acceptance with the differences that the group members have in relation to other students/people. He/she must be able to understand the perfectionism and feel secure enough with his/her own capabilities and values that the feelings and ideas expressed by group members do not threaten the leader's ability to facilitate the learning precesses in the group.

The group processes that will be discussed are integral parts of a total learning experience. The separation of each process into a distinct section is more for the purpose of the discussion than as a description of separate operations. The group will be presented as a learning environment which will require: 1)Identification with the group, i.e. belongingness; 2) Conditions necessary for the learning to occur, i.e. acceptance, trust, and support; and 3) Procedures by which the learning occurs, i.e. feedback and reality-testing. Once all of these processes are set into motion, then the goals of the group can begin to be met. The individual goals of self-awareness and improved interpersonal relationships will be seen as entailed in the group goal of creating a cohesive group and thereby a peer community.

BELONGINGNESS: IDENTIFICATION WITH THE GROUP

The gifted and talented have been described as isolated from their peers because of their complex cognition, unique interests, and perfectionistic expectations. Isolation has both the disadvantage of loneliness and the advantage of specialness. By joining a counseling group, the gifted and talented are faced with having to give up both the disadvantage and advantage of social isolation. Identification with the group presents the opportunity for belonging with others, and, at the same time, demands a commitment and willingness to trust in the benefits of that belonging. Therefore, the gifted and talented must be able to see that membership in a group will require some loss of individual uniqueness but only through the gain of close relationships where one finds his/her own place in the group (Dinkmeyer and Muro, 1971).

Finding one's place involves accepting that one's concerns, feelings, interests, and ideas are not unique but are shared by others. With this realization, the gifted and talented may begin to weigh the two-sided nature of their uniqueness. The choice to belong to the group will depend on each gifted and talented member's evaluation of the group members. This evaluation will be more favorable if other members appear to offer comments, behaviors, perceptions, and genuine feelings that hold attraction and interest to the gifted and talented student. As the individual members begin to hear echoes of their thoughts, feelings, and concerns, they may be willing to forfeit some of their wretched and extraordinary uniqueness for the price of understanding, acceptance, and support.

LEARNING CONDITIONS: ACCEPTANCE, TRUST, AND SUPPORT

Whereas identification with the group involves seeing the commonalities one shares with others, acceptance, trust, and support entails allowing differences to exist within those commonalities. Acceptance and support acknowledge each group member as a person of value whose opinions and feelings are necessary in order to achieve group goals. Whatever the group member expresses will be accepted as long as respect and empathy are shown toward the other members. By attempting to integrate one's expression of differences with one's accepting and supportive behavior toward others, the gifted and talented group member will begin to learn that he/she can still be unique but in a less absolutist/perfectionistic way. An example of this kind of learning can be seen when an individual group member is challenged on his/her perfectionistic standards because they appear counter-productive to the individual and group goals. The group member may feel that he/she merely has expressed an individual difference in feelings or ideas, but the group must challenge the behavior because of the arrogance and haughtiness that underlies it. The challenge is accepted when the group member respects and trusts the other members so that their acceptance is important enough to question the behavior and motivate change.

LEARNING PROCEDURES: FEEDBACK AND REALITY-TESTING

Learning in the group occurs when each group member creates a social microcosm of his/her outside attitudes and behaviors within the safety and acceptance of the group. When the behaviors and attitudes that contribute to social isolation are directly experienced by group members, each member will describe the impact on him/her. The group member who displays behaviors based on perfectionistic standards will be asked to look at those behaviors and question whether or not they lead to personal growth and improved interpersonal relationships. Through feedback, the group member is given an opportunity to gain insight into the dynamics of his/her behavior and to reevaluate "concepts, assumptions, faulty attitudes, and mistaken perceptions" (Dinkmeyer and Muro, 1971, p. 78). In this way, feedback is the underlying mechanism in reality-testing.

When individuals use the counseling group to test the reality of their perceptions and behaviors, it becomes a learning laboratory for self-awareness. The unique quality of this learning experience is that the individual group member is accepted and cared for as a person for whom group feedback will have some impact on the way he/she feels, thinks, and behaves. In the gifted and talented counseling group, the members can support risking new types of behaviors and/or maintaining behaviors and attitudes that may be at odds with expectations outside of the group, e.g. parental, teacher, other peers, etc. In this way, the group learning experience teaches that certain attitudes, expectations, and behaviors will not be accepted outside the group. However, with group support, the gifted and talented can gain the confidence and assurance to continue the pursuit of their interests, talents, and/or philosophical ideas. An example of this may be seen in an artistically talented group member who expresses disappointment at the lack of support that he/she experiences coming from parents and teachers for pursuing a career in music. Through discussion of this concern within the group, the musically talented group member may better understand the reasons for the lack of outside support, e.g. concerns about employment possibilities, success, financial instability, and yet, at the same time, he/she can also feel encouraged to pursue music as a result of the validation and understanding received from the group.

Reality-testing, therefore, is not a way to make for compromised conformity to the real world. Instead, it fosters self-awareness of choices that one faces and allows for better understanding of reasons for making particular choices. The gifted and talented counseling group will permit the group members to see their similarities to and differences from one another. It will also bring to awareness their similarities to and differences from the mainstream school population. Gaining an awarenss of these comparisons and contrasts can make for more realistic and less disappointing choices when the gifted and talented begin to choose lifestyles, careers, and social group membership.

THE PEER COMMUNITY

All communities have certain requirements for their effective functioning, e.g. laws, customs, social norms. The gifted and talented counseling group is a small community of peers. The precondition for the effective functioning of this community is group cohesiveness. Yalom (1975) states that when group members "show mutual understanding and acceptance" then they are, "by definition, cohesive" (p.47). For the gifted and talented, the cohesive group experience appears to be a realistic option for counteracting social isolation and fostering self-learning and learning about others. In this cohesive peer community, the gifted and talented can develop a sense of mutuality, the realization that they need one another to support their commonalities and differences. The experience of belonging to a community that mutually cares about one another's feelings, ideas, and experiences works to improve each person's adjustment, diminish feelings of isolation, heighten hope, and increase self-esteem (Frank, 1961).

In American society today, there is a sense of people searching for a community to which they can belong. This is especially evidenced in the attractiveness of religious cults, fraternities, and punk-rock groups for American youth. Perhaps, the gifted and talented have always felt a need to belong as a result of their isolated position within the larger society. Their difference from the mainstream population has made it harder to find a group to which they could belong. Therefore, social isolation has often been seen as a characteristic of artists, scientists, and other talented people in history (Prentky, 1980; Roe, 1952). With the creation of a peer community in the schools, the gifted and talented now can have a model for other communities that they may attempt to find at universities, laboratories, businesses, or art studios. In the end, human development may be said to depend on human interaction for all people. Therefore, if left to a life of social isolation, the gifted and talented are forced to suffer from a lack of knowledge about themselves in interaction with other people. Yalom (1975) pointedly states the necessity for social interaction when he says:

> People need people - for initial and continued survival, for socialization, for the pursuit of satisfaction. No one transcends his need for human contact, neither the dying, the outcast, nor the mighty. (p.22)

The above presentation was given as a rationale for using group counseling to create a gifted and talented peer community in the schools. The following suggestions for designing and conducting group counseling are offered to counselors as ways to implement the above rationale. Also, suggestions for group topics are given as examples of beginning group exercises that counselors may use to facilitate group process.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DESIGNING COUNSELING GROUPS FOR GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENTS

1. Meet with each potential group member individually.
    a) Assess isolationism.
    b) Discuss goals of the group.
    c) Discuss individual goals of student.
2. Clearly offer membership as a voluntary experience.
3. Arrange for group sessions to be held once weekly on an alternating schedule of classes missed, e.g. one week, period one is missed and the next week, period four. Be sure that students understand that they will miss one period class a week. If this does not seem agreeable to all, then try to determine before or after school times.
4. Consider group composition:
    a) number of members?
    b) members of both sexes?
    c) underachievers and high achievers?

5. Determine ways to evaluate group goals, outcomes, processes:
    a) Pre and post tests.
    b) Teacher/Parent conferences.
    c) Individual group member conferences.
    d) Whole group discussion/evaluation.
6. Consider how long group will continue. Can group and individual goals be achieved in the time period of one school year, one semester, etc.?

SUGGESTIONS FOR CONDUCTING GROUP COUNSELING FOR GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENTS

Starting the Group

1. Leader will be more directive in initial groups than later on.
    a) Begin with more task-oriented assignments (see suggestions for group topics).
    b) Do not expect trust and acceptance to be present in group from the start.
    c) Discuss issues about the group as part of the school environment, e.g. group leader is also school counselor, group members may also be classmates.
2. Leader will model appropriate and expected behaviors in the group:
    a) Discuss own feelings about issues of trust.
    b) Be honest, empathic, accepting, and non-defensive

3. Leader will facilitate group members in attaining group and individual goals:
    a) Reinforce positive interactions between and among members.
    b) Reinforce honest self-disclosure, positive giving and receiving of feedback.
    c) Encourage risking new behaviors and testing the reality of old behaviors.

Running the Group

1. Leader will encourage group members to assume responsibility for what occurs in the group:
    a) Members raise topics of discussion.
    b) Members become models for other members.
    c) Members facilitate group members in attaining goals.
    d) Members encourage each other to risk new behaviors, attitudes, and expression of feelings.
    e) Members support each other in persisting in areas of interest, talents, or abilities that may not be supported by outside the group sources.

2. Leader will be aware of his/her values, attitudes, and possible areas of conflict with group members, e.g. attitude toward gifted and talented perfectionism.

3. Leader will meet with other counselors to discuss difficulties, concerns, and issues in the group that require feedback and

and support from outside sources.

4. Leader will evaluate group processes and outcomes on a regular basis and suggest appropriate modifications to group members when necessary.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GIFTED AND TALENTED GROUP TOPICS

1. Discuss the similarities and differences between the terms "special" and "odd."

2. Discuss the terms, "gifted" and "talented." Ask each member to describe someone, either fictional or real, that he/she considers gifted and talented and to explain the feelings that this person arouses. Group leader should encourage members to speak about feelings of identification or emulation with the person that has been described.

3. Discuss the notion of social responsibility vs. individualism. How can someone maintain his/her individualism and still be committed to others?

4. Read portions of Erikson's Identity: Youth and Crisis (1968) and discuss the issue of identity formation and the need for peer social interaction and support.

5. Bring a record, print, or piece of writing to the group and ask group members to evaluate its "goodness." From these evaluations, raise questions or the difficulties that are involved in not

having an absolute notion of goodness. These questions can lead to discussion of absolutism vs. relativism. What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of both? Some questions that may enhance discussion are:

a) Why might people prefer absolutes?

b) How can absolutes, e.g. perfectionism, interfere with a person's sense of well-being?

c) Does any group member have certain things about which he/she feels absolutist? Would you like to share them with the group?

d) How can having absolutist standards serve as a way of separating you from other people?

e) What does one fear to lose by giving up the certainty of absolutes?

6. Discuss the issue of maintaining or compromising one's ideals. What does a person gain or lose by maintaining ideals or compromising ideals?

7. Discuss the notion of creative ambiguity. How does the creative process work in terms of tension, uncertainty, and/or confusion? Ask members to share personal experiences where they have felt that something creative has emerged from a stressful event.

8. Discuss group members' conceptions of the future. How do they envision the world, the country, the city in which they live,

the family that they may have, the work that they will be doing, and their lives in general? What feelings does this future vision arouse in them? How do they cope with these feelings when planning for their careers and lifestyles?

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A MODEL OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING:
FAMILIES WITH GIFTED AND TALENTED CHILDREN

by:

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1982

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to relate how the family system interacts with a gifted and talented member and how that interaction either enables or impedes the development of the talented person. Several authors hypothesize that family values, parenting styles, personalities of parents and intra-family relations differentially affects the talented child (Albert, 1978; Anolik, 1979; Fine and Pitts, 1980; Thiel and Thiel, 1977). While much of the relevant literature reviewed tends to focus on problem children, this paper will propose what functionally should exist within a family system in order to create an optimal environment for the gifted and talented learner.

ASSUMPTIONS

The study of the gifted and talented child, in relation to the family system, is philosophically grounded on two assumptions by this author. First, the gifted and talented child must be considered like any other person, possessing needs that motivate the child toward self responsibility and self-fulfillment. However, the gifted and talented child is more intensely affected by those needs and generally more sensitive to resolving the need for self-fulfillment (Khatena, 1978). Because of this unique characteristic, the talented child must deal with the conflicts between the emotional, social, and physical environment. Oftentimes, the gifted and talented child is discribed as independent, non-conforming and, confrontive when the perceived standards of performance and behavior are set down by school, family and peers. Optimal development of talent requires the child learn how to cope with these tensions. The other choice for the child is to suppress his/her talent characteristics. The former path leads to productive, and gratifying opportunities. The latter path leads to personality disturbance, breakdown, or dissatisfying experiences in interpersonal, academic, and career development.

The second assumption is that the talented child is one subsystem within the family system. A main property of a system is the gestalt; i.e., the whole being greater than the sum of its parts. Therefore, the talented child must be considered within the context of what else is occurring in the family. Besides having unique characteristics and intense strivings, the talented child is subject to family rules, myths, communication patterns, intergenerational forces, and family life stressors as are all individuals.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In reviewing the research which pertains to the dynamic influence of family background variables in families with a gifted and talented member, the following characteristics are prevalent. The gifted and talented child will usually be an only child, the first or second born child in the family (Albert 1980a, 1980b). Other factors that may alter family position are family size, spacing between siblings or early parental or sibling death. Albert (1980a, 1980b) hypothesizes that families select certain members to be "special" because of family history or prestige, economic status, or intergenerational conflicts. Dewing and Taft (1973) and Albert (1980a) both suggest that talents of a family member have a greater chance of being recognized by parents if these talents match one or both of the parents.

The parent-child relationship may be the link between the talent of the child and the level of achievement (Albert, 1978; Brooks, 1973). Either parent giving recognition and reinforcement to accelerated physical or cognitive development impacts earlier upon a talented child's achievement than upon the average child. The early family experience of selecting a child to be "special" is seen as being a major factor in whether the child will become a creative adult.

Albert's (1978) conclusion, in his historical study of eminent people, is that there usually existed an imbalanced relationship between the parents. An imbalanced marital relationship creates a paradoxical situation for the talented child -- the child is considered "special" or selected to accomplish great things yet the imbalanced marital relationship binds the child to one parent and creates a sense of ambivalence and distance with the other parent. This marital imbalance reinforces the "specialness" of the child which, if the child does perform as expected, the imbalanced relationship all ready present in the system is again confirmed. Brooks (1973), in a thirty year longitudinal study of parental attitudes of artistic children, cites an article by D.W. McKinnon (1962) in which the parent-creative child relationship is described by a lack of intense closeness with one or both parents. The ambivalence in the relationship is hypothesized to create a distance which has a liberating effect so far as the child's creativity is concerned.

Many authors (Albert, 1978; Fine, 1977; Newman, Dember and Krug, 1973; Thiel and Thiel, 1977) focus on the triangulation of relationships within the family with an identified talented member. Triangulation is the emotional over-involvement of any two members of a family which acts covertly to exclude a third member. Triangulation can potentially occur if the talent of a family member becomes the organizer of family energies in which family conflicts are channelled. The conflicts are not resolved but are set aside by one or both parents in facilitating the talents of their child.

Albert's (1978) use of the term "imbalanced marital relationship" is analogous to the triangulation process. In effect, the family system's enhancement of talent appears to happen through the unfortunate maintenance of debilitating family patterns. The identified child can become enmeshed by the marital or family conflicts. The resulting enmeshment aligns the child with one of the parents creating indistinct, over-involved emotional boundaries between the parental and sibling subsystems. The effect of this family interaction gives the child an illusive and unrealistic adult role in the family system.

A MODEL OF POSITIVE FAMILY FUNCTIONING

In order to develop one's talents, however, one does not need to maintain dysfunctional family patterns. The goals for a positive functioning family system with a talented member are hypothesized to be directly parallel to any family with a child in the normal range of cognitive, social and affective development. Following are a set of propositions which are derived from Minuchin's (1974) structual family model. It is hoped this will provide an understanding of family dynamics that should be occurring in a positive functioning family with a gifted and talented child. Power within the family system must abide with the parental subsystem. It is important that clear generational boundaries exist with parents sharing the authority, responsibility, and parenting roles. A parental style which encourages open communication and sharing of opinions among family members while maintaining a definitive line of authority is desired. Giving power to gifted and talented children to assume parenting or adult functions because one or both parents wants to recognize special abilities can lead to triangulation and inappropriate alliances between parental and sibling subsystems.

Individuation is another important process goal of the family with gifted and talented children (Fine, 1977; Khatena, 1978). This process is the mutual existence of both intimacy and separateness occurring between family members. Individuality is recognized when the family system allows flexibility and differences to exist among members while the family system is emotionally bonded and affectively alive. The parental subsystem must demonstrate the unconditional recognition, acceptance and love for the whole family. Parental approval is a powerful reinforcer of attitudes and behavior patterns. Parents who respond excessively to the talented child's accomplishments teach their child to perform for the sake of recognition or reinforcement. When self-esteem becomes associated with receiving this parental approval, the child tends to lose the sense of self which is needed to individuate. In addition, with the excessive attention from parents, sibling jealousy may occur to further stress the family system.

Teaching flexibility and adaptability when coping with conflict and stress is a vital part of developing autonomy, responsibility, and negotiation within a family system. A gifted and talented child needs to be taught to empathize and respect others. Parents who are proud of their child's talents while having difficulty with their own self-regard have a tendency to allow their precocious children to set their own rules. Parents interpret this as encouraging the child to express their feelings and wants. This also contributes to a fallacy about gifted and talented children - the idea that if they are left alone, they have the resources to learn and grow without any problems.

The lack of boundaries and an inability to individuate contributes to "adultizing" the talented child. The subsequent result is an ambivalent or negative self-concept. The child is found to have an unreal or superficial sense of self while demonstrating superior but shallow thinking. This, again, creates a paradoxical situation. The expectation is that the gifted and talented child, with more than ample verbal and cognitive skills, should be able to relate to peers and adults in line with their advanced skills. In reality, the child can only relate to another to the degree their cognitive, physical and emotional development will collectively permit.

How the family intergenerational system teaches about and copes with various family life stressors is critical to the development of the talented. Parents must be aware of how they are being influenced by their own families. Social, religious, economic, and emotional rules of the family are unknowingly passed down from the families of origin. Unrealistic expectations or an attitude of indifference may arise from parents not being able to differentiate from some of the same expectations or indifferences they experienced with their own parents.

The positive functioning family system that has identified the talented abilities and interests of a family member can be characterized by strong, clear, intergenerational boundaries among spousal, parental, sibling and peer subsystems. The parents, regardless of the talented behavior displayed, must retain effective control and guidance over the sibling subsystem. When the family encounters a stressful situation, clear and congruent communication which recognizes the feelings and individuality of all family members is desired. This dynamic is characterized by the full range of affective expressions being allowed in the family. Accordingly, the family is then capable of the necessary flexibility of rules, roles, and adaptive control mechanisms in order to resolve the stressful situation, to explore alternative ways of coping with the stress, and avoid the extremes of the family system becoming enmeshed or disengaged (Minuchin, 1974).

CONCLUSION

Whether being gifted and talented should be considered a family stressor or not depends on how the rules of relating occur in the family system. There are special system-wide issues which must be considered when dealing with families of talented children. First, how has the intergenerational family system socially, historically, and emotionally selected out their particular family member to be special? Second, in what ways does the family system and the particular subsystems use the talent? It may be utilized as an constructive organizer of family energies or as a way to sidetrack unresolved conflict. The third issue is concerned with the careful observation of emotional triangulation of family members occurring where gifts and talents have been identified. Research has found that talent of one family member can be enhanced at the expense of emotionally distancing another family member. Lastly, the most complex issue is identifying how the family system acknowledges the specialness of a family member while retaining sufficient subsystem boundaries, the proper power hierarchy, the full range of affect and expression, and clear communication channels. It can be assumed that a gifted and talented child with a negative self-esteem indicates the family system has developed potentially dysfunctional patterns.

In summary, the family system model clarifies how the gifted and talented family member may be a growth enhancing component of a family system. However, talents of a family member can organize the family structure to maintain dysfunctional patterns of interaction. The talent of a family member may be enhanced under both circumstances. The model proposes that it is how the family retains power structure, organizational roles and rules, and involvement with each other that determines whether the family will be a growth-producing and growth-enhancing environment not only for the talented child, but for the whole family.

It is obvious there is dire need for further study as to how the family influences cognitive, affective, physical, social development, and achievement of the talented child. Then, and only then, will it become feasible to pinpoint the family dynamics involved in the enhancement of talent. While past family research has focused mainly on the sociological variables found in families, perhaps the time is appropriate to develop descriptive, intensive studies which highlight the complex dynamics that take place in a family with a gifted and talented member.

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SEX ROLES AS THEY AFFECT TALENTED STUDENTS' CAREER DEVELOPMENT

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In present-day American society, more occupational doorways are opening to both females and males. The corollary to this is that individual career development becomes more complex. In light of these social realities, I will, in this paper, consider two questions: (1) Why might gifted and talented males or females, limit themselves to careers considered traditional for their genders with the doors opening to both traditional and non-traditional careers and lifestyles?, and (2) How can counselors, teachers and parents help gifted and talented students broaden their career options? These questions must be addressed by those concerned with the plight of the gifted and talented since there are, among the array, vocational choices now accessible to individuals, some lead to expansive and flowing paths of personal development, while others open onto pathways fraught with frustration. The latter, which I associate with a too strict adherence to traditionally-gender-specific careers, means taking routes that do not utilize individuals' broadest potentials. Following the more dynamic pathways, which I link with an openness to both traditional and non-traditional gender-related career options, means, on the other hand, that individuals are recognizing their abilities and applying themselves optimally to all types of modalities and situations.

To begin to deal with the first question, it must be realized that, for males and females alike, lifestyle and career development choices primarily involve socialization. This socialization may erect barriers against the realization of individual potential (Hansen, 1980). For example, females have been, and are, conditioned to be the nurturers. Traditionally, in the job market, they have a low self-concept relative to males because they perceive their personalities to be characterized by less decisiveness and assertiveness than they deem to be true of males. Consequently, their traditionally female careers offer less money, power and status than those of males. Additionally, females face role conflicts (e.g., "Can I have a family and a career or do I have to choose between them?") and have to confront a society with a dearth of women in non-traditional careers and lifestyles serving as role models. Females suffer from not being work oriented -- they are not conditioned to think about and plan a career. Males, on the other hand, are conditioned to be the performers, providers and protectors. They are perceived to be decisive, assertive and to have careers proffering power, status, and money (Skovholt and Morgan, 1981). Decisiveness and assertiveness are considered to be positive traits and their possession, along with the concommitant attainments of power, status and money, provide little incentive for males to change or to allow traditionally feminine characteristics to emerge. Males are generally restricted emotionally. (I agree with one of my collegues in GIFTS, [illegible]hn Pribyl, who suggests that, though females have a low self-concept in the job market, they have a high affective self-concept and may be more skilled in general than men because of the varied demands placed on them.) Males perceive it as a sign of weakness to give vent to their feelings by crying or seeking help. Vocational success may be everything for males; for them, occupational success equals high self-esteem (Skovholt and Morgan, 1981).

The importance of such perceived gender distinctions as the above cannot be overestimated. "Gender affects the emotions we are taught to exhibit, the personality traits we develop, the vocational inclinations we pursue, the goals we aspire to, the way we relate to our peers and authority, the responsibilities we expect to assume and how we define our individual identity." (Hopkins, 1980). Yet, recently there have been changes in our society that affect the lifestyle and role identity of both females and males. These changes include technological advances, newly-emergent family and work patterns, new educational programs, a strong women's movement and an emerging men's movement. The traditional attitude, that views men as the performers, providers and protectors, is changing (Hansen, 1980).

Children in contemporary society cannot help but be affected by the above societal changes. As a reflection of society, sex roles are becoming less traditional (Zuckerman and Sayre, 1980) and children's perceptions of sex roles follow this transformation. Elementary children have shown non-stereotypical views concerning which activities and occupations are appropriate in general for males and females. When they are given a list of occupations, they will say that both males and females can occupy those careers. However, sex role stereotyping continues to have a strong influence when they think about their own careers. Zuckerman and Sayre (1980) found extremely traditional career aspirations among elementary children.

Research conducted at the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) indicates that elementary-age talented females perceive themselves as having a choice between traditional and non-traditional careers (University of Wisconsin, Note 2). However, a follow-up study conducted at GIFTS indicates that high-school age talented females actually prepare for and choose traditional careers. In a study conducted by Alpert and Tysse (Note 1), male and female high school seniors were asked to decide what would be an "ideal" career and what would be a "real" career for them. Preliminary data analysis indicates that most of the males chose a traditionally masculine career for both their "ideal" and "real" careers. The females chose both traditionally feminine and traditionally masculine careers for both their "ideal" and "real" careers. Females seem to be perceiving themselves as having more options than males in career choice.

Another finding relevant to sex role stereotypes and gifted students is that cognitive development seems to correlate with sex role development. (A characteristic of talented students is advanced cognitive development.) Leahy and Shirk (1980), conducted a study with four-, six-, and eight-year old children to ascertain sex-trait stereotypes and the ability to reclassify sex-traits. They found that, at the youngest age, children classified traits as stereotypical of a gender category, but that with increasing cognitive level these traits became less stereotypical of gender for them. As cognitive skills and classificatory skills advanced, so did the ability to recognize that one sex can maintain both "feminine" and "masculine" characteristics. The development of the conceptualization of sex roles paralleled the development of nonsocial cognitive skills. The ability to recognize multiple classificatory possibilities may have reflected increasing cognitive flexibility. Cognitive development also was found related to vocational perception. As cognitive development increased, boys and girls allowed themselves a choice from a broader range of occupations, reflecting their changing modes of understanding the occupational world (Nelson, 1978).

What does the above study imply about talented students? An hypothesis is that talented students, because of their advanced cognitive level, may have non-traditional sex role attitudes and be influenced less by sex role in their lifestyles. They may recognize that each female and male can maintain a balance of "masculine" and "feminine" characteristics. One must be cognizant of abilities, interests, values, attitudes and external pressures in accounting for sex role behaviors (Spence and Helmreich, 1980).

In addition to having advanced cognitive levels, talented students have multipotentiality and high expectations. They are able to consider a multitude of lifestyles and careers. Yet, talented males and females are still socialized into their traditional roles and, therefore, may not have access to experiences leading to non-traditional roles which may better meet their needs for personal achievement. These students may suppress their desire to perform in non-traditional roles for fear of appearing unmasculine or unfeminine. Even though talented females may have a strong career orientation, they may choose careers which require less preparation time and personal commitment or they may avoid planning careers until marriage and family issues are resolved.

A final consideration with regard to talented males and females and career is that members of this group may be highly educated and highly specialized and they are likely to choose spouses who have at least the same level of education and career aspiration. This leads to dual career families -- families which face special problems of decision-making and redistribution of home and family responsibilities.

This brings me to the second of my original questions: How can counselors, teachers and parents help open the doors leading to the broad, flowing lifestyle and career pathways? How can we help students break down the barriers that society has erected in their way? How can we encourage students to discover sex role similarities rather than to dwell on sex role differences? The following are some strategies which suggest that through awareness and discussion, talented students can be helped to be cognizant of their abilities, interests, values, attitudes and external pressures and can increase the possibility of pursuing both traditional and non-traditional lifestyles and careers (for further reading and practical application activities, see "Additional Resources"):

1. Provide role models. Point out that throughout history both men and women have had non-traditional careers. Discuss specific examples illustrating this. Find men and women in the community who are in non-traditional occupations and arrange to visit them and have them visit your school: children are more impressed by what they actually see and experience than by what they read and hear about.

2. Discuss dual career families. An increasing number of couples have found themselves within the realm of dual work or dual career relationships, i.e., ones in which both the husband and wife work outside the home in addition to maintaining their family obligations. In a study now in progress (Alpert and Tysse, Note 1), the hypothesis is that students in dual career families will perceive themselves as having a wider range of lifestyle options than those in two parent families where only the father works.

3. Roleplay situations in which males and females face career and family decisions. For example, ask both the males and females to respond to the following questions: What would you (your spouse) do if you (your spouse) were offered a higher career position, you (your spouse) wanted it, and it required relocation? You (your spouse) have been requested to put in longer hours at your (your spouse's) job. This means you (your spouse) spend less time with your family and will not be able to go on a planned vacation. What do you (your spouse) do?

4. Discuss traditional vs. non-traditional sex roles, e.g., benefits and liabilities.

5. Discuss their families. What are the expectations of parents? Are they to "follow in their footsteps?" Should there be grandchildren? Are there expectations regarding money, status, power?

6. Discuss how television, movies, and advertising influence sex role stereotypes. Brainstorm on how media influences can be effectively changed: e.g., writing scripts that provide a broad spectrum of male and female emotions, vocations, and lifestyles, and that avoid the gratuitous inclusion of sex role stereotypes.

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* Elementary Level, Hansen, Pelcak, Perreault, Dege.

* Secondary Level, Hansen, Johnson, Hatfield, Teeson, Harper, Perreault.

* Post-secondary/Higher Education Level, Hansen, Perreault, Lofgren, Follett, Watt, Boe.

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APPENDIX

Biographical Sketch

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

DONALD M. CALLAHAN - is currently a Doctoral student in the Department of Counseling and Guidance, and a project assistant for the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Causal factors in the different affective and cognitive lifestyles of talented children are his major research interest.

DONNA RAE CLASEN - is a Doctoral candidate in Educational Psychology at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. She has been a teacher of gifted high school students and of university courses on teaching the gifted. At present her research is focused on instructional strategies for gifted within the classroom.

ROBIN M. DEUTSCH - is a Doctoral student in Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. She was formerly the coordinator of gifted and talented in the Stoughton Area Schools. Presently her research is focusing on how children respond and cope with divorce.

MARY E. WEAVER-GREFE - is currently a second year Master's student in the Department of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Research interests focus on gifted student athletes and learning styles. She is currently a project assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS).

ANGELA E. HOPE - came to the University of Wisconsin-Madison in 1981 for Doctoral studies in Counseling and Guidance after 16 years of working in multi-ethnic communities in Southeast Asia. She is presently a project assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS). Her major interests focus on indigenous counseling approaches, cross-cultural issues in counseling and relevant approaches in educating and counseling the culturally different and disadvantaged gifted.

KAROL L. JENSEN - is currently pursuing a Doctorate in Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. She is a project assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS). Her major research interests are the ego development of minorities and women and how ego development impacts on career decision-making.

JAMES L. LEE, PH.D. - is currently a Professor in and Chairman of the Department of Counseling and Guidance. He is a frequent speaker and presenter in both education and business. His major research interests are preferred learning styles, dyadic communication, stress management and vocational development.

LINDA S. LINGEMANN - is completing her Doctorate in Educational Psychology (School of Psychology) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. As a research assistant at the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS), she has focused on the area of creativity. Her other research interests include territoriality, animal behavior, and aggression.

PHILIP A. PERRONE, PH.D. - is currently a Professor in the Department of Counseling and Guidance and Director of the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Vocational development, educational change, and the affective development of gifted and talented children are his major research interests.

JOHN H. PRIBYL - is a Doctoral student in the Department of Counseling and Guidance and research assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. His major research interests are family influences upon educational and career development of gifted and talented children, family-school consultation strategies, program development and family therapy.

CHARLES J. PULVINO, PH.D. - is a Professor in the Department of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. His research interests include developmental counseling, hemispheric specialization, learning, applications of counseling with diverse populations and counseling applications of visualization.

MARILYN D. RITHOLZ - is presently a Doctoral student in the Department of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Her current research interests involve social support groups and peer communities for the gifted and talented. Marilyn's background includes teaching and planning curriculum for junior and senior high school gifted and talented students as well as several years of counseling in various mental health settings.

LINDA R. SANDERS - is currently completing her Master's degree in Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Research interests include athletically gifted students and development of self esteem in gifted students. She is presently a project assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.

SALLY A. SCHLACK - is currently working on her Master's in Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and is a research assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS). Her nine years of experience as a Board of Education Member has influenced her current interest in Parent Advocacy Groups for gifted and talented education.

DAN R. SEABOLD - is currently a Doctoral student in the Department of Educational Psychology and staff person in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Occupational burnout, mentoring, networking, and meditation are his major research interests.

DAVID H. STONG - will receive an M.B.A. from the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater where he is presently assistant to the program manager at the Wisconsin Innovation Service Center. His research interests range from creativity and innovation to new product development and consumer behavior.

DOROTHY J. TYSSE - is currently a Doctoral student in the Department of Counseling and Guidance and a research assistant in the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Sex role stereotyping, career development of gifted and talented males and females and dual career couples are her major research interests.

DENNIS H. VAN DEN HEUVEL, PH.D. - is currently the Associate Director of the Guidance Institute for Talented Students (GIFTS) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. He has served as a school counselor, director of guidance and state supervisor of school guidance programs. School counseling and guidance programming, counselor personal/professional development, personnel administration, and the personal/career development of talented persons have been major research and service interests.